IMPACT OF CONTENT-BASED LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION ON EFL YOUNG LEARNERS' LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT AND LEARNING MOTIVATION

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Abstract

Impact of Content-based Language Instruction on EFL Young Learners' Language Development and Learning Motivation

This study examined the impact of Content-based language instruction on primary EFL young learners in Taiwan in terms of learning motivation and language development. It investigated how content-based language instruction impacts on learners' learning motivation, language attitude, classroom anxiety, and language development. The impetus of the present study was motivated by the growing population attending private institutions for better language instruction in Taiwan and research indicating that language is more effectively learnt when the target language is in authentic use. Content-based language instruction has been widely implemented as a L2 instruction approach in North America and Europe since the 1980's, after the success of the innovative French immersion programme in Quebec, Canada in 1965. Numerous studies have shown impressive results on learners' L2 development while learning other subjects by using their L2 (Swain, 1982, Chamot, 1985, O'Malley, 1987, Brinton, 1989, Akünal, 1992). This teaching approach has proved to be effective for developing learners' functional language fluency, academic achievement and is thought to be motivating.

This study employed a case study design. English proficiency was measured using Pienemann's Rapid Profile (1988, 2001) and self-assessments; motivation and anxiety were examined using questionnaires, teachers' interviews, and video recordings conducted in a private bilingual primary grade 1 class. Results showed that although learners tend to participate more actively in subject-learning classes than language input classes and have benefited from the programme in terms of language development, many subjects showed higher classroom anxiety in the post-course questionnaire. Further, the results also showed a strong positive correlation between learning motivation and classroom anxiety after learners had undergone six weeks of content-based language instruction.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

This chapter consists of four major parts. First, section 1.1 gives a brief overview of education context of the current study. Particularly it gives background knowledge of the role of English language learning as a foreign language (EFL) in Taiwan, which is the society this study context is situated. Second, section 1.2 lists the rationale for the current research. Third, section 1.3 discusses the anticipated difficulty and outcomes of this study. Finally, section 1.4 outlines the structure of this thesis.

1.1. Educational Context of the Current Study: English as a Foreign Language in Taiwan

The main purpose of the current research was the assessment of language proficiency and investigation of the changes in learners' motivational attributes in a private primary school classroom, after six weeks of a content-based language programme, to see whether the studied programme had any impact on the learners' motivational attributes. An additional aim was to explore the impact, if any, which was correlated to improvement in the learners' proficiency after the programme. The class studied consisted of 23 first year primary children aged 6 years and an English native speaking teacher in a private primary school located in Taichung city, central Taiwan. The use of Content-based language instruction with this group of EFL young learners was of particular interest because more and more parents in Taiwan opt to send their children to private language institutions which provide content-based language programmes, despite English having been included in the national curriculum for primary education since 2001. However, very few studies have been

conducted based on private language institution contexts although surveys have showed that more than 7 out of 10 primary children attend private English language courses (Lu, 1996; Shi, Chao, Chen & Chu, 1998). Furthermore, existing studies concerning English language learning in private institutions in Taiwan have mostly focused on investigating pupils' and parents' views on private courses and consumer attitudes toward these courses (see Lu, 1996; Shi, Chao et al., 1998). Hence more classroom-based research is needed to help us better understand how language instruction impacts on the language development and motivation intensity of these learners.

There has been a trend of shifting English language learning to younger age-groups in school education in Asia. In Nunan's (2003) investigation in the Asia-Pacific region, he found that the grade level in which English is introduced as a compulsory subject in schools, such as in China, Korea, and Taiwan, has been shifted to a lower Grade. Pupils in Taiwan start to learn English as a foreign language as a compulsory subject from Grade 3, at the age of 8, since the educational reforms introduced in 2001 (MOE, 2003). The Taiwanese Education Ministry (MOE) also further empowers local governments and schools to extend the English programme to even lower grades to serve their 'situational needs'; such as parental expectations, pupils' attainment and teaching resources available in individual schools (ibid). Further, 'introducing children to a new language offers opportunities to widen their horizons and awaken their early enthusiasm and curiosity about languages' (Pinter, 2006: 32). Due to the educational policy changes and the recognition of benefits from learning a new language, parents of primary pupils in Taiwan are keen to have their children acquire English as an additional language although it is not of use in a direct social context in Taiwan.

1.1.1 English National Curriculum in Compulsory Education

According to the 2001 educational reform, all primary school English programmes must follow the English National Curriculum Guidelines (MOE, 2001, 2003). The English National Curriculum Guidelines are summarized in Table 1.1 (p.11). The Grades 1-9 English Language Programme is separated into 2 stages: primary stage (Grades 1-6) and junior high school stage (Grades 7-9). The primary stage focuses on developing pupils' listening and speaking skills in English language usage. Reading and writing skills are integrated spontaneously into the school curriculum. As presented, the curriculum guidelines are fairly vague and give schools a great level of freedom to set out their own agendas and create their own syllabuses. Nonetheless, there are still lots of reported difficulties on teaching English in primary schools which will be briefly discussed in a later section of this chapter.

Table 1.1 Grade 1-9 English National Curriculum Guidelines in Taiwan

English National Curriculum Guidelines	
Grade 1-9 Learning Goals	To cultivate basic communication skills in English To develop pupils' learning skills and promote interest in English language learning To better understand our own as well as English culture and conventions
Stage One (Grade 1-6) Learning Objectives	**Listening** From knowing the names of the letters of the Alphabet to understanding classroom language **Speaking** From being able to say the Alphabet to communicate with classroom language **Reading** From recognizing the Alphabet to appreciating stories and understanding textbook content with teacher's guidance **Writing** From printing the Alphabet to writing simple sentences
Stage Two (Grade 7-9) Learning Objectives	Based on acquired skills in Stage One **Listening** To understand short films and plays **Speaking** From being able to express personal feelings and opinions to introducing cultures and making comparisons. **Reading** From being able to read charts and signs to comprehending articles with a variety of topics and subjects **Writing** From being able to write simple sentences to organizing ideas and paragraphs and write letters

(MOE, 2001, 2003)

1.1.2 Difficulties of English teaching in Public Schools

Although English language has been a compulsory subject in primary education since 2001, there are still some obstacles for running English language programmes in mainstream schools. These difficulties may help to explain why parents opt to send their children to private institutions for English courses despite English classes being provided in all primary schools. Major difficulties are briefly discussed below.

Politics and English Language Learning

The teaching of English to young learners in the Taiwanese social and political context is unique. Within Taiwan's political context, with its strong concern from the MOE for the protection and preservation of Taiwanese and Hakka, there has always been strong opposition to the intensive English programmes in mainstream schools. On the one hand, the MOE is keen on promoting Taiwan's own cultural identity by promoting Taiwanese and Hakka in the national curriculum. Furthermore, with students' limited time in school, say seven hours of class time, choosing amongst subjects to teach becomes an inevitable task for education policy makers and schools. Hence, only a very few hours of English language instruction are available in public schools. On the other hand, most parents consider acquiring English as a second language is far more practical for their children in terms of entering better-performing schools, or later in their lives when seeking jobs. And the very limited time available for English in the public schools will not lead to levels of proficiency that will enable students to have the range of secondary schools or career choices that the parents wish them to have. Taking the conflict between education policy and the market demand into account, maybe it is understandable why more and more parents are sending their children to private institutes for English language learning.

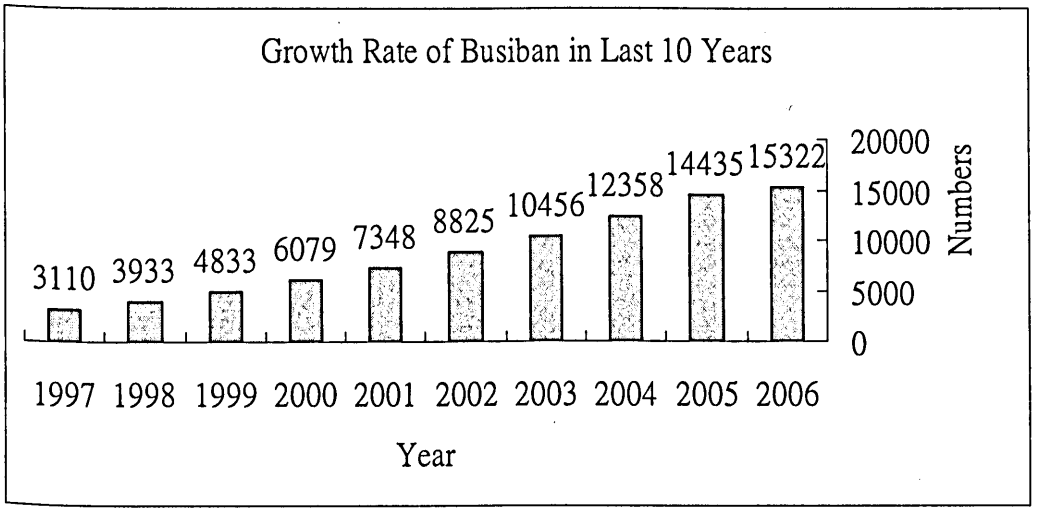
1.1.3 Culture of Supplementary Learning & National Statistics

Before going into a discussion of the culture of supplementary learning in Taiwan, it is important to point out why it is crucial to the present study and the context of the present study. Most primary schools in Taiwan run after-school programmes. This is particularly common in large cities where both parents of most of the pupils are working and cannot look after them immediately after the pupils finish school at the end of the day. In order to run after-school programmes, the schools need, by law, to obtain permission from the MOE. Very often, schools choose to set up 'extension centres' or so-called 'education promotion centres' which are registered as cram schools. This is especially common for private schools, as most parents choose private primary schools because they believe private schools can provide a better Chinese and English bilingual curriculum. In addition, according to one of the MOE's surveys, in 1997 (Shi et al., 1998) there were about only 20% of public primary schools that taught English whereas 75% of private primary schools taught English. This could be because private schools have greater freedom in the choices of teaching staff and curriculum as well as being more flexible with their funds. The study also revealed that parents in private schools are more willing to pay more supplementary fees for extra hours of English teaching as they enjoy a higher income compared with parents in public schools. In contrast, public schools are constrained by government regulations in the use of their funds and are restricted in their selection of teaching staff.

According to Shi et al's (1998), before English language was made a compulsory subject in the national curriculum, 21.1% of public primary schools included English in their school curriculum due to the demand from parents. Furthermore, Lu's (1996) study showed that 74.8% of those learners also received extra English language

instruction outside school on top of their school English programmes. An English language learning frenzy started in the 1990's in Taiwan. According to Chen's (1996) survey results, there were 83% of primary pupils in Taipei city (the capital of Taiwan) who had learnt English for more than six months. However, these students mostly received their English language instruction from outside their primary schools, such as in after-school clubs or private language centres - so-called Busibans, which means supplementary learning in Chinese. Figure 1.1 presents the growth rate of registered Busibans in the last 10 years in Taiwan. The number of registered Busibans has grown nearly 500%, from 3110 to 15322 in the past 10 years (MOE, 2006).

Figure 1.1 Growth Rate of Busiban in Last 10 Years

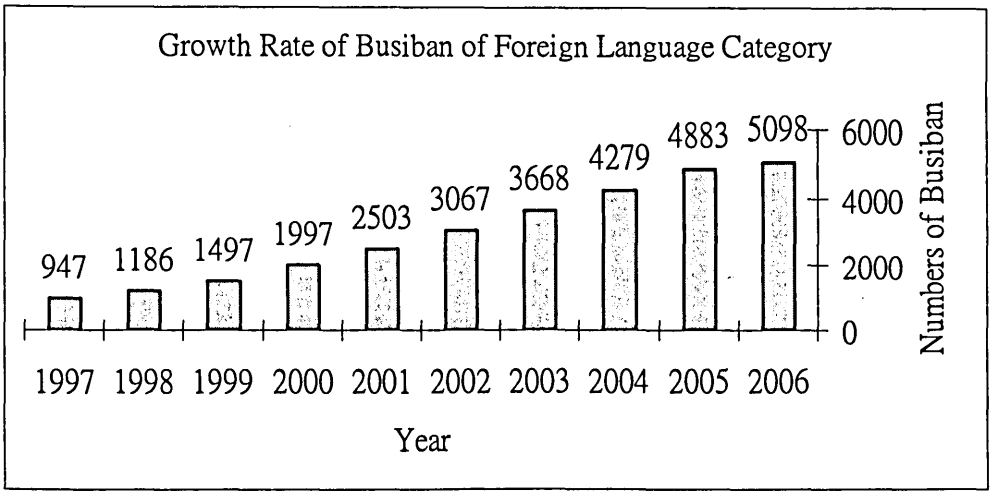


(Resource: MOE http://bsb.edu.tw/afterschool/register/statistic_10_total.jsp retrieved on 08 June 2006)

The category of Foreign Language had out grown for all categories, from 947 in 1997 to 5098 in 2006 summer, which is a growth rate of more than 500% as shown in Figure 1.2. This number does not include self-employed tutors and Busibans not registered with the MOE for one reason or another, such as taxation avoidance or simply owners of small Busibans who cannot be bothered with tonnes of paper work for registration. Nevertheless, it is quite common to see unregistered Busibans,

especially in those remote areas where parents do not pay as much attention to the quality of Busibans.

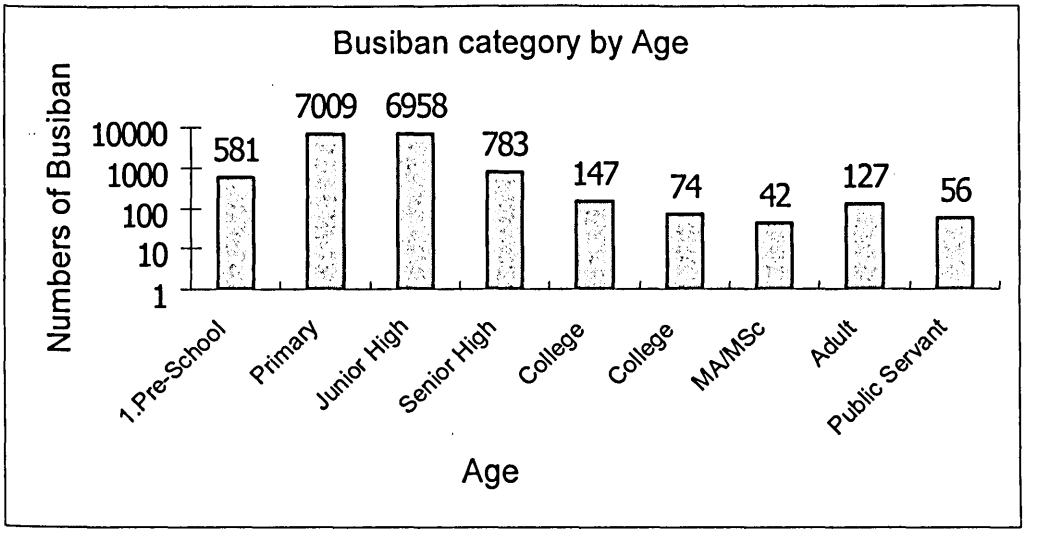
Figure 1.2 Growth Rate of Busiban of Foreign Language Category



(Resource: MoE http://bsb.edu.tw/afterschool/register/statistic_10_total.jsp retrieved on 08 June 2006)

The two types of Busiban which have the highest numbers are those registered for recruiting students in primary education, who are aged from 6 to 12, and students in junior high schools, who are aged from 13 to 15. Figure 1.3 presents numbers of registered Busibans for different age groups.

Figure 1.3 Busiban Category by Age in 2006

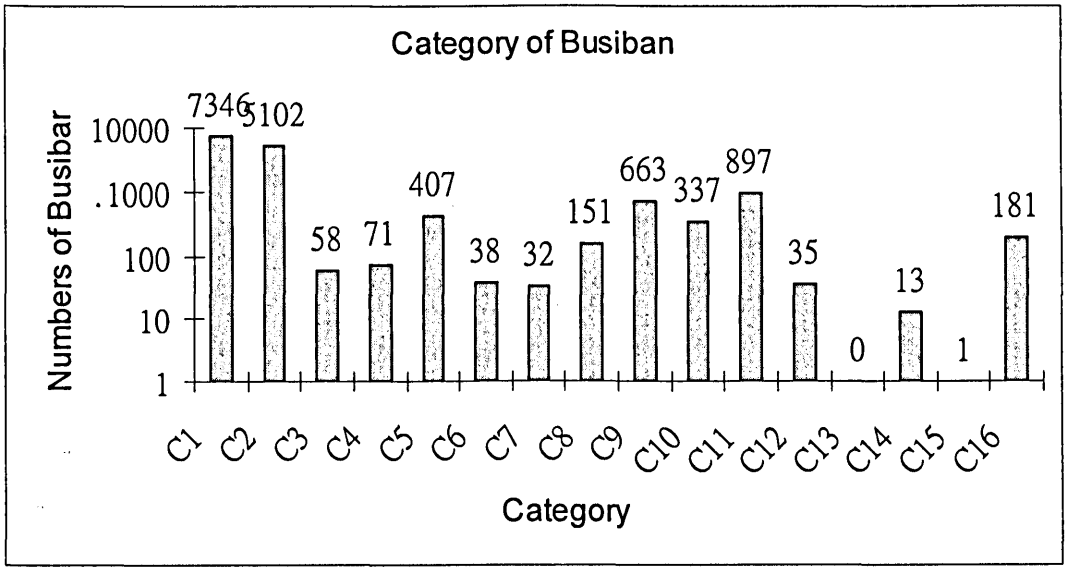


(Resource: MoE http://bsb.edu.tw/afterschool/register/statistic_10_total.jsp retrieved on 08 June 2006)

Many recent studies reveal that most Taiwanese primary school children attend private language centres for English language instruction. Although Busibans seem 'informal' for both parents and pupils (Chang, 2005), they play a very important role in education in Taiwan, especially private language centres which are registered as short-term language cram schools and Literature and Science cram schools.

Figure 1.4 shows the distribution of Busibans registered in different categories in June 2006 (MOE, 2006). As presented, C1: Literature and Science with a number of 7346 Busibans and C2: Foreign language with a number of 5102 Busibans are the two registered Busiban categories with the highest numbers. This shows how members of the public in Taiwan see English language learning as a serious task.

Figure 1.4 Numbers of Busibans registered in different Categories



Keys: Category of Busiban: C1 Literature and science C2 Foreign language C3 Laws and regulations C4 Architecture, Drafting, Electric, Auto C5 Information C6 Home management C7 Sewing C8 Beauty, Hair saloon C9 Music, Dance	C10 Art design, Photography, Calligraphy C11 Accounting, Mental arithmetic, Abacus C12 Yoga, Chinese martial art C13 Swimming C14 Speed reading C15 Radio technology C16 Music.

(Resource: MOE http://bsb.edu.tw/afterschool/register/statistic_10_total.jsp retrieved on 08 June 2006)

The national statistics shown in Figure 1.1 to Figure 1.4 reveal that Busibans play a vital role for primary children's English language learning in Taiwan. However, very few studies have been conducted about this educational context.

1.2.Rationale for the Research

This study mainly focuses on investigating how CBLI impacts on EFL young learners' motivational attributes and language development. Many parts of the private language sector, namely private primary schools, junior high schools, and Busibans, started to implement CBLI in their curriculum after observing a successful outcome demonstrated in a innovative programme conducted in the National Experimental High School at Science Based Industrial Park nearly 10 years ago. However, no research study has been conducted to reveal if this course is actually effective or what is a more successful way to help students to learn a foreign language in CBLI programmes. CBLI is believed to have many benefits for learning languages for academic purposes. The rich context it provides, which scaffolds learning, generates learning interests and motivates learners, is thought to be the most encouraging (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989; Gibbons, 2003; Parkinson, 2000). Many studies on the use of CBLI have been carried out in North America and Europe. Nevertheless no studies have been conducted in such an area in Taiwan, particularly with young learners, despite the very high proportion of primary school children studying English in the private language sector.

1.2.1 Research Gaps

CBLI use in the language classroom is thought to be motivating, contextualized, and gives learners purpose to learn the target language (Swain, 1976). However, most of these research are based on theories, not on empirical evidence, particularly in EFL contexts. This study fills gaps in the field of second language acquisition listed below:

1. This study investigates the use of CBLI in an EFL context. The literature dealing with CBLI is mostly in ESL settings but not in EFL settings.
2. This study bridges a gap in CBLI research by focusing on a population that has not yet been investigated. Many studies focus on the use of CBLI in higher education or secondary education in North America and Europe. Few studies focus on the impact of CBLI on young learners' language learning attitudes, motivation, and anxiety.
3. Very few studies conducted in Taiwan investigate how particular curriculum use impacts on young learners' motivation attributes and language development.
4. Seedhouse (1999, 2004) called for more classroom-based investigation and research on EFL young learners' classroom interaction. This study included classroom observation of content-subject lessons and language input lessons in order to gain a better understanding of how learners' classroom interaction varied in these two types of class.

1.2.2 Focus & Methodology of the Study

This study examined the impact of CBLI on EFL young learners' attitude, motivation, and anxiety towards English language learning by adapting Gardner's (1985) Anxiety Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) and triangulated this with the teacher's observation. It emphasized 4 aspects: 1) how CBLI impacts on EFL young learners' motivational attributes, namely attitudes, motivation intensities, and classroom anxiety; 2) learners' target language development; 3) classroom interaction in content-subject lessons and language focused lessons; and 4) how CBLI impacts on EFL young learners' interests in school subject learning.

In order to investigate the above-mentioned issues, data collection instruments were adapted from studies in relevant fields of research. Questionnaires were implemented to collect quantitative data whereas the teacher's interviews provide a qualitative means of validating quantitative data. Multiple methods of language assessment were employed to gain a holistic view of learners' language development. The following detailed information illustrates the methods used for data collection.

1. A questionnaire adapted from Gardner's (1985) Attitude Motivation Test Battery in the second week of the programme to survey their opinions and attitudes towards English language learning and other school subject learning.
2. The same questionnaire stated as in 1.) after the subjects finished the course in order to measure changes in their motivational attributes.
3. A self-assessment questionnaire on the learners' reading and writing skills in the second week of the programme to survey their self-confidence in the target language use as well as their reading and writing skills in English.
4. The same questionnaire as stated in 1.) after the subjects finished the course in order to measure their self-confidence changes in the target language use as

well as their language skill development.

5. A set of communicative tasks in the second week to elicit the subjects' language samples to assess their language developmental stages.
6. The same set of communicative tasks as stated in 5.) in the final week to gauge learners' target language development.
7. A semi-structured interview in the second week of the programme for the teacher's point of view on the subjects' motivational attributes towards different classes in the programme.
8. A semi-structured interview in the final week of the programme for the teacher's point of view on the subjects' motivational attributes changes towards different classes in the programme.
9. Video recordings of 2 content-focused lessons and 2 language-focused lessons to gather qualitative samples of the teacher's and the learners' classroom interaction.
10. Researcher's observation notes of 2 content-focused lessons and 2 language-focused lessons to document the teacher's and the learners' classroom interaction quantitatively.

The data obtained from the above-mentioned instruments was analysed either quantitatively or qualitatively, depending on the purpose of each implemented instrument and the nature of the data.

1.3.Anticipated Difficulty and Outcomes

This section includes two sub-sections, 1.3.1 and 1.3.2. I outline the anticipated difficulty in sub-section 1.3.1. Difficulties were expected prior to conducting the research. Many concerns and how they were dealt with are disclosed below. Sub-section 1.3.2 lists the likely outcome of the current study.

1.3.1 Anticipated Difficulty

Subject availability was a concern since this research was conducted in a school summer programme. Student numbers in a summer programme are usually far less than those available in term time. Also the number of available subjects was unknown prior to the conduct of the research. In order to tackle this difficulty, the leading manager of the summer programme placed a highly homogenous group of learners in one class upon the researcher's request. Only the background, L2 proficiency level, age, and the subjects' previous language learning experiences were known to the participating teacher and researcher before the programme started. These learners were all aged 6 with more or less the same proficiency level and mostly studied in the same kindergarten which taught English via story telling, games, songs and rhymes, and role plays and had no prior experience of CBLI before the summer programme.

Due to the learners' limited English language ability as well as their reading skill in their first language, Chinese, they were not able to read the questionnaire and understand the interview questions. Moreover, even if they could understand the interview questions after the interviewer's explanations, it was predictable that they

might not be able to express their opinions freely and completely due to the language limitations. In order to overcome such a difficulty, all questionnaires employed were translated into the subjects' first language, Chinese, by a professional English-Chinese child literature translator and proofread by primary school teachers. Also, assistance was provided when subjects were answering the questionnaire.

1.3.2 Anticipated outcomes

This study is an attempt to shed light on how CBLI impacts Taiwanese EFL young learners' motivation, attitudes and classroom anxiety as well as their language development. It was expected to reveal the following outcomes.

1. CBLI brings positive impacts to young EFL learners' language learning motivation, attitude and anxiety in general. However there would be a difference depending on the learners' amount of development.
2. Unlike the findings in Gardner's study (1985), the more learners' anxiety levels reduce, the greater their language improvement will be. In other words, the study was expected to find that learners with lower classroom anxiety would tend to improve more than their peers who had higher classroom anxiety.

1.4 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis consists of six chapters, of which this is the opening chapter. It also gives a brief introduction of the wider context in which this study lies and rationales of the study. The second chapter reviews the relevant literature of CBLI, which includes the theoretical underpinning of CBLI, the successful practice of CBLI in different models, empirical studies conducted in the past, and motivational studies and theories. Chapter 3 mainly states the research questions and outlines methodological design and its rationales and justifications of instrument use in this study. Considerations behind the research instruments which are relevant to the present research, reliabilities and validities of employed instruments are also discussed. Further, data treatment was also proposed in this chapter. Chapter 4 Data Presentation Analysis and Discussion – Part I is an endeavour of data analysis and presentation of data collected. In this chapter, data gathered from the proposed instruments in section 3.3.2 Observation (p.110) were organized and analysed according to the methods proposed in Chapter 3 (section 3.5.3 Data Treatment & Analysis, p.145). This chapter is aimed at providing evidence of the implementation of the CBLI programme in the current study. Chapter 5 Data Presentation Analysis and Discussion – Part II presents results analysis of learners' motivation attribute changes and language development as well as discussion of the findings. The final chapter, Chapter 6 deals with answers toward the proposed research questions and the conclusion of the present study. Additionally, pedagogy and curriculum design implications of the study are also articulated alongside the acknowledgement of limitations revealed in this study.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

This chapter reviews the relevant literature on the current study: Impact of Content-based language instruction on EFL young learners' language development, and learning motivation. The following literature review is divided into four main parts. First, in section 48557320, I will review the relevant literature on second/foreign language learners' motivation and attitudes and discuss the relationship between motivation, attitudes, classroom anxiety, self-confidence and the target language achievement. Second, in section 2.2, the more recent literature of how a second/foreign is learned is reviewed. Further, the question of can instruction make second/foreign language acquisition more effective is discussed. Third, in section 2.3, I will summarise the characteristics of young English foreign language (EFL) learners, and principles for good practice by surveying the relevant literature. In section 2.4, the literature of Content-based language instruction (CBLI) is extensively reviewed. I will also discuss the benefits and drawbacks of using CBLI in a language classroom, and verify the benefits by reviewing empirical studies conducted in the past few years. Finally, the last section of this chapter, section 2.5 summaries the theoretical foundation of the current study.

2.1 Learning Motivation in SLA

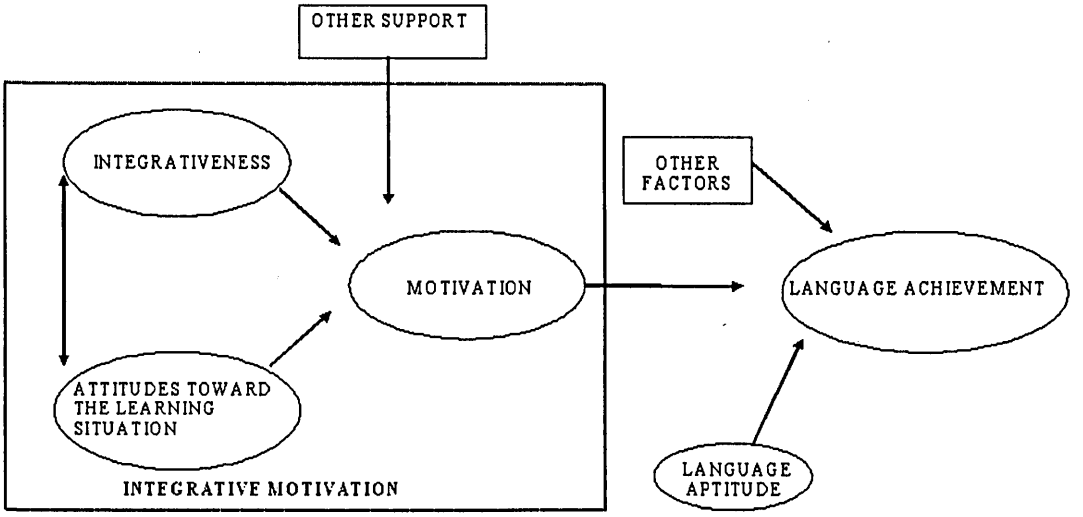
The literature review in this section is divided into five sub-sections. Section 2.1.1 discusses the relationship between motivation and learners' acquisition of a second/foreign language. Section 2.1.2 reviews the definitions and construct of motivation in the field of second/foreign language learning. The next section, 2.1.3 introduces the most commonly adapted instrument of motivational studies in SLA. The construct of motivation can vary due to different settings and contexts. Hence they need to be taken into consideration when conducting research with a certain group of learners. Section 2.1.4 visits literature on issues need to be reconsidered in motivational studies in EFL settings. Finally, section 2.1.5 focuses on situational factors particularly apply to young learners.

2.1.1. The Relationships between Motivation and SLA

Motivation is one of the individual differences; such as aptitude, learning skills and strategies, and personalities that have great influences on learners' achievement and failure in second language learning. It has been widely studied to find out how it influences learning success and more importantly how external factors can be modified to better improve language learners' motivation.

A basic model (see Figure 2.1, p. 28) illustrating the role that learners' motivation plays in second language acquisition which is proposed by Gardner (2000b) helps to elucidate how each component relates to the others in the current study. Accordingly, motivation along with language aptitude and other factors such as learning environment, learning skills and strategies and personalities can have significant influence on language learners' achievement (ibid). Under such a framework, learners' motivation is shaped by three major factors, i.e. integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation and other support. Integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation are two correlated supports of motivation. The factor of other support represents the encouragement learners obtain from other sources, for example parents' encouragement or sense of achievement from successful learning. Other research into motivation suggests that learners' self-confidence (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994) and language anxiety (MacIntyre, Noels, & Clément, 1997) also have direct impact on learners' motivation. In the current study, I focus on investigating how Content-based language instruction influenced EFL young learners' attitudes towards the learning situation, their motivation, and classroom anxiety as a whole. I also further examine how the investigated factors correlate to other factors such as parental support and language achievement.

Figure 2.1 Basic Model of the Role of Aptitude and Motivation in Second Language Acquisition



(Gardner, 2000b: 17)

Although various motivational dimensions were drawn from theories of motivation in educational research and the psychology of learning (see Ushioda, 1996, 2001 and Dörnyei, 1998, 2001 for recent review), the study of language learning motivation remains constrained by the original research question first launched by Gardner and Lambert (1972): 'How is it that some people can learn a second or foreign language so easily and do so well while others, given what seem to be the same opportunities to learn, find it almost impossible?' (p.130).

2.1.2. The Construct of Motivation

Mainstream psychology defines motivation as 'the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained' (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996: 4). Crookes and Schmidt (1991: 480) note that 'teachers would describe a student as motivated if he or she becomes productively engaged in learning tasks, and sustains that engagement, without the need for continual encouragement or direction'. Motivation is also considered as 'a process whereby a certain amount of instigation force arises, initiates action, and persists as long as no other force comes into play to weaken it and thereby terminate action, or until the planned outcome has been reached' (Dornyei, 1998: 118). As Dornyei (1999:525) describes 'motivation is one of the most elusive concepts in applied linguistics and indeed in educational psychology in general', it is not difficult to understand why there is a plethora of definitions of motivation. From the definitions above, it can be observed that most researchers agree that motivation is related to 'persons' choice of a particular action, persistence with it, and effort expended on it' (Manolopulou-Sergi, 2004: 428).

As noted above motivation is a very complex construct, it has many components which could interfere with each other. Attitude, motivation, self-confidence and anxiety have been identified as the four major components of motivation: attitude towards the target language culture, motivation of acquiring the target language and anxiety of target language use (Gardner, 1985; Gardner et al., 1989; Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant, & Mihic, 2004).

Attitude

Gardner (1985: 8) defines attitude as a 'mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related', which consists of three components: cognitive, affective, and conative components. The cognitive component indicates the individual's belief structure. The affective component refers to one's emotional reactions. The conative component means the inclination to carry out the necessary action.

Motivation

In the SLA context, Gardner (ibid:10) proposes that 'motivation refers to the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language.' He further stresses that 'motivation to learn a second language is seen as referring to the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity' (ibid:10).

Anxiety

While Krashen (1981) considers anxiety as a potent deterrent to second language achievement, Gardner (1985) argues that anxiety in the language classroom does not necessary correlate to low achievement. Further, in Gardner and Smythe's (1975) study, both language classroom anxiety and general classroom anxiety were measured, and the results showed that they were substantially correlated. This is to say that language class anxiety reflects both general classroom anxiety and anxiety specific to

the language-learning context. It is the general classroom anxiety that interferes with language acquisition. Learners who have a tendency to have higher anxiety in the classroom in general naturally have high anxiety in the language classroom.

Self-Confidence

Self-confidence in using a second/foreign language can affect learners' willingness to communicate in the target language (MacIntyre et al., 1997; MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, & Donovan, 2003; and Cao & Philp, 2006). It has been defined in many motivational studies in SLA as a combination of high self-perceptions and a lack of anxiety (Clément et al., 1994; Cao & Philp, 2006; Baker & Macintyre, 2003; MacIntyre et al., 2003). Language learners' self-confidence has also been identified as an important motivational basis for target language acquisition and behavior as it can affect their willingness to communicate, which is key to the success of acquisition (Clément et al., 1994; MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Donovan, 2002). Further, Brown (1973) claimed that 'the self-knowledge, self-esteem, and self-confidence of the language learner could have everything to do with success in learning a language' (p.233).

Research has suggested that anxiety and self-confidence of L2 competence can be a determinant of target language achievement even in EFL contexts where learners have few opportunities to use the language with members from the target language communities (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986).

Gardner's Socio-educational Model

Gardner's (1985) Socioeducational model suggests that motivation is one of the important variables in determining success in acquisition. This model has been used

to investigate the relationship of second language achievement to the five attitude/motivation variables which are integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, motivation, integrative orientation, and instrumental orientation The Socioeducational model further proposes that, in second language acquisition, language learning is a dynamic process in which variables of affective and language achievement have an influence on each other (Gardner et al., 2004).

In the field of applied linguistics, two components of Gardner's model developed in 1985 have become well-known: integrative and instrumental orientation (Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998). The former is related to L2 learners' positive attitudes toward the communities in which the target language is spoken. The latter is associated with more concrete benefits which come with acquiring the target language, such as getting a better job or passing an exam.

However, Gardner's model does not take into account the fact that not all learners are motivated by integrative or instrumental factors, especially in the case of EFL young learners aged 3-11 years since they are not in immediate need of communicating in English nor do they need it with any urgency for economic or social status. In fact, it is the direct learning environment which has a stronger influence on EFL young learners' motivations. Relevant literature of EFL young learners' motivation will be further discussed in the later section 2.1.5 Situational Factors and Motivating EFL Young Learners (p. 36).

2.1.3. Attitude Motivation Test Battery

The Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), which is invented by Gardner (1985) has been adapted and used in many studies (Gardner, 2000; Dörnyei, 1990; Oxford 1996 etc.) to measure motivation intensity, desire to learn the language, anxiety caused by using the language, and attitudes toward learning the language. These three attributes are identified as the three major components of motivation (Gardner et al., 2004). Under the AMTB framework, it 'would not adequately characterize a motivated individual' if focus was on only one of the characteristics (ibid, p4). The framework consists of 13 attributes, in which each attribute contains several test items. The 13 attributes are thought to be influential to the learners' motivation in that very specific context of Gardner's (1985) study. They are displayed in Table 2.1 (p.34).

It is important to note that some of Gardner's attributes are not of learners' direct concern in EFL contexts, such as 1) attitudes toward French Canadians and 3) attitudes toward European French; these test items may make the test result unreliable. Both Dörnyei (1990) and Oxford (1996) suggest that it is more valid to eliminate those attributes in test items when in a foreign-language-learning environment in which the other language is not frequently used/encountered in the immediate community or not of social significance in that community. Considering that the participants in the present study are very young and situated in an EFL context, only 6 attributes from Table 2.1 (p.34) are applicable. Those are: 2) interest in foreign languages, 4) feelings towards target language, 7) language class anxiety, 8) parental encouragement, 12) teacher evaluation and 13) course evaluation (please see detailed discussion on the use of an adapted AMTB in 3.3.1.1 Adopted Attitude Motivation Test Battery, p.100). Additionally, self-assessment was also taken into account given

that it provided a good indicator for the learners' self-confidence in the target language use which is one of the major components of learners' motivation (Masgoret, Bernaus & Gardner, 2001), as noted previously.

Table 2.1 Lists of Attributes in Gardner's (1985) AMTB

	Attributes	Test Item Numbers
1.	Attitudes toward French Canadians	10 yes/no statements
2.	Interest in foreign languages	10 yes/no statements
3.	Attitudes toward European French people	10 yes/no statements
4.	Feelings toward learning French	5 statements each for positive and negative wording
5.	Integrative orientation	4 yes/no statements
6.	Instrumental orientation	4 yes/no statements
7.	French Class anxiety	5 yes/no statements
8.	Parental encouragement	10 yes/no statements
9.	Motivational intensity	10 multiple choice questions
10.	Desire to learn French	10 multiple choice questions
11.	Orientation index	1 multiple choice question
12.	French Teacher Evaluation	25 items with 1-7 point Likert scale
13.	French Course Evaluation	25 items with 1-7 point Likert scale

2.1.4. Motivation Research in EFL Setting

One of the main drives behind the reform of L2 motivation research in the 1990s "was to adopt a more pragmatic, education-centred approach to motivation research, which would be consistent with the perceptions of practising teachers and, thus, be more directly relevant to classroom application" as "it was felt that the social-psychological approach did not provide a sufficiently detailed description of the classroom dimension of L2 motivation" (Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998: 204-205). Hence many researchers then hypothesized that situation-specific motivation closely related to classroom reality played a more significant and complex role in this field of study (Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998).

Clément et al. (1994) carried out an empirical study amongst Hungarian EFL learners in order to investigate the classroom dimension of L2 motivation. The result of their study identified the existence of a tripartite motivation construct amongst these EFL learners consisting of 'integrative motivation', 'linguistic self-confidence' and the 'appraisal of the classroom environment'. In their study, the integrative motivation is similar to Gardner's (2000b) notion of integrativeness. The second component of L2 motivation, 'linguistic self-confidence' refers to learners' attempts to fulfil their need for achievement. The third component of L2 motivation, 'appraisal of the classroom environment' is L2 motivations which are generated directly from the learning environment, such as liking the curriculum, teachers, or peers.

2.1.5. Situational Factors and Motivating EFL Young Learners

Apart from being integratively, instrumentally or even cognitively motivated towards language learning, learners can also be motivated by classroom factors such as tasks, learning activities, and instructional materials (Dörnyei, 1998; Ellis, 1985; Julkunen, 2001; Pinter, 2006). Additionally, there is also a positive correlation between learners' attitudes towards the learning situation and their language achievement (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). Situational factors are particularly imperative for young learners' motivation in EFL contexts since they do not have direct contact with native speakers or the target language culture. Hence their attitudes and motivation towards target language learning are mainly dominated by learning situations.

Younger learners tend to be influenced by their feelings towards factors which are directly linked to the programme in which they are enrolled, such as teachers, peers, general learning atmosphere in the classroom, their parents' views, and how the lessons are taught/conducted (Moon, 2000). EFL young learners' learning motivations and attitudes can be easily affected by whether they like their teachers and fellow students (Pinter, 2006). Furthermore, EFL young learners' attitudes are not fixed as they can be easily influenced positively or negatively by factors other than the curriculum, such as their parents' and their teacher's view of English. Most importantly, their motivations are mainly shaped by learning processes, such as how lessons are taught, whether the activities in the class are interesting and meaningful to them, and whether the learners are feeling comfortable and not under unbearable pressure in the class. The above-mentioned factors, together, play a vital role in shaping young learners' motivations and attitudes toward English learning. Hence,

they were taken into account when investigating their learning motivations in the current study.

Many studies have been done on curriculum design particularly focusing on addressing learners' needs (Brindley, 1989; Richards, 2001). Nonetheless these research studies assume that as long as a programme appears 'to meet the student's own expressed needs (or whatever their supervisors/teachers believe to be their needs)[it] will be more motivating, more efficient, and thus more successful' (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991: 492). Crookes and Schmidt (ibid) point out that the supporters of the impact of curriculum designs on learners' motivation rarely make explicit reference to motivational research. Thus the current study endeavours to investigate and maybe to shed light on how Content-based language instruction, which is thought to be an ideal teaching approach (Brinton et al., 1989), has any impact on EFL young learners' motivation towards target language learning.

2.2 Second Language Acquisition and Instruction

In this section I review the theories of SLA which justify the use of CBLI in the current study. The question of how an L2 is learned has been widely investigated for the past few decades. While psycholinguists focus on how human brains process an L2, sociocultural theories are interested in investigating how social interaction influences the success of a second/foreign language acquisition. Although psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic theories seem to have very little in common, they do not necessarily conflict. In fact, both paradigms play important roles in second/foreign language acquisition. Thus, learning theories which provide a theoretical basis for the use of Content-based language instruction (CBLI) under both paradigms are reviewed in this chapter to better illustrate how cognitive factors and social factors shape and influence second/foreign language acquisition. In addition, whether the language learning process can be made more effective by instruction will be reviewed in this section.

2.2.1 Psycholinguistic Paradigm

Many researchers have tried to explain the process of SLA with hypotheses, theories, and models based on the cognitivist paradigm. While sociocultural theories argue that learning is shaped by environmental and social factors, psycholinguistic theories emphasize how mental processes facilitate learners' intake and initiate language input. According to McLaughlin's (1987) Cognitive Theory, second language learning is a complex cognitive skill. Language learners must practice sub-skills, namely learning strategies, production strategies and communication strategies, in this complex task to become proficient. McLaughlin (1990) characterizes the cognitive theories to second/foreign language acquisition as:

1. Cognitive psychology emphasizes knowing rather than responding. In addition, it is concerned with studying mental processes involved in language acquisition and use of knowledge.
2. The cognitive approach follows Piaget's view that "all living creatures are born with an invariant tendency to organize experience". It assumes that human knowledge is structured. Anything new that is learned is integrated into this structure.
3. Cognitive Theory sees individuals as active learners that make conscious actions, plans, constructs, rather than simply accepting stimulus from their environment.

Processing and Noticing

Much of SLA research is based on the assumption that the human brain has a limited processing capacity within a limited period of time. This assumption has been applied to processing approaches in SLA, such as Bate and MacWhinney's (1981)

competition model, McLaughlin's (1987) research on second language skill acquisition, van Pattern's (1996) study of processing instruction, which was based on Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1985), Vainikka and Young-Scholten's Organic Grammar (1996, 2006) and Pienemann's (1998) Processability Theory (PT). These studies hypothesize that L2 learners have limited processing capacity for their target languages. Pienemann's PT (1998) is supported by Vainikka and Young-Scholten's Organic Grammar as they comment that 'the manner in which we and Pienemann have catalogued L2 development is strikingly similar' (2006:95). Pienemann (1995, 1998, 2002, 2003, and 2005) argues that the task of language acquisition includes acquiring necessary procedural knowledge of processing the language.

According to many psycholinguistic theorists, such as Levelt (1978), McLaughlin, Rossman and McLeod (1983) and Schmidt (1992), PT is an application of Anderson's (1983, 2000) notion of a knowledge framework, which describes how information is stored in the long-term memory of a human brain. In this framework, Anderson (ibid) distinguishes procedural knowledge from declarative knowledge. Procedural knowledge concerns things one knows how to do without consciously knowing how, whereas declarative knowledge consists of known facts, ideas, concepts that one can describe with conscious effort. For example, a 6-year-old child can normally tie his/her shoelaces without any help from adults. However, he or she usually cannot explain or describe how such a task is performed. He/she has the procedural knowledge of how to tie shoelaces, but not the declarative knowledge of carrying out the task. On the other hand, a restaurant critic might have tremendous knowledge of how a dish is cooked without being able to do it by him/herself. In such a case, the restaurant critic has the declarative knowledge of cooking, but not the procedural knowledge of it. One can also have both types of knowledge when carrying out certain tasks. A native English speaking linguistics researcher naturally

has the ability to speak the English language (procedural knowledge) and also explicit knowledge of the language (declarative knowledge). PT is based on the notion of the 'procedural skill approach' to language acquisition in which 'the real-time production of language can only be accounted for in a system in which word retrieval is very fast and in which the production of linguistic structures is possible without any conscious or non-conscious attention' (Pienemann, 1988:5). In other words, the criterion of language learners' abilities in processing the target language is based on reaching the stage of automaticity, which can be evidenced by a 'gradual drop-off in reaction time and error rates and diminished interference from and with simultaneous tasks' (Dekeyser, 1997:196).

In line with procedural skills in processing the target language, Pienemann argues that learners' language development follows a similar sequence. The assumption that language learners follow the same developmental sequence is supported by the cross-sectional and longitudinal work of Meisel et al. (1981). The developmental sequence for features of syntax and morphology is affected by the degree of ease in processing them. The developmental stages will be discussed in a later chapter (see section 3.3.3.1 Rapid Profile in p.119).

The fundamental argument of PT is that 'in the acquisition of language processing procedures the assembly of the component parts will follow the above implicational sequence' (Pienemann, 1998:6). Accordingly, the identified processing procedures and routines function as constrictions that can only be overcome stage by stage in learners' interlanguage development, for the reason that these acquisition stages are 'interrelated in such a way that at each stage the processing prerequisites for the following stage are developed' (Pienemann, 1985:37). Nevertheless, PT does not suggest that formal instruction should be abandoned, nor that all the linguistic forms not yet required should be eliminated from input. Instead, teachers should

provide instructional focus on forms in the order in which learners have been observed to acquire them (ibid). Explicit form instruction can only be effective when learners are ready to process them (see section 2.2.3 Language Instruction, p. 45, for review). Thus, the application of emergence criterion (please see later section 3.3.3.1 Rapid Profile, p.119) plays an important role in the determining of learners' developmental stages. The hierarchical processing procedures and routines underlying PT are reviewed in section 3.3.3.1 Rapid Profile (p.119).

Schmidt (1990) proposes the Noticing Hypothesis, saying that learners cannot learn anything (e.g. language features), until it has been noticed. His study was inspired by his own experience as a Portuguese learner in Brazil. Schmidt noted that as a foreign language learner in Brazil, he could only start to use certain features after realising these features were used in his daily life. Likewise, Gass (1988) describes the learning process as beginning with learners starting to notice the gaps between what they hear or see and what they expect from the target language. Nevertheless, some research also points out that noticing, although important, is not solely a sufficient condition for second language acquisition (Robinson, 1995; Tomlin & Villa, 1994). Simple noticing of a linguistic feature does not necessarily lead to acquisition. Instead, learners' short-term memory for processing the language, and long-term memory for retrieving the language, also plays vital roles in SLA (Robinson, 1995).

Input Hypothesis

Krashen (1981, 1985) proposes the Input Hypothesis and claims it to be the central part of an overall theory of second language acquisition alongside four other hypotheses: the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, the Natural Order Hypothesis, the Monitor Hypothesis, and the Affective Filter Hypothesis. Accordingly, humans

acquire language by understanding messages, regardless of whether the messages contain un-acquired grammar. Krashen argues that:

> 'we are able to understand language containing un-acquired grammar with the help of context, which includes extra-linguistic information, our knowledge of the world, and previously acquired linguistic competence...if input is understood, and there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided' (ibid: 2).

Accordingly, acquisition takes place when one is exposed to comprehensible input which contains a small amount of unknown information which he calls 'i+1' (also known as the Natural Order Hypothesis). Krashen (ibid) refers to 'i' as one's actual proficiency level, whereas the metaphor '1' refers to a step beyond one's actual level. Additionally, he strongly insists that grammatical rules taught in language classrooms never be the same as those a learner acquires unconsciously in a natural setting (ibid). Hence he draws distinction between learning and acquisition (Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis). The Affective Filter Hypothesis refers to 'a mental block, caused by affective factors ... that prevents input from reaching the language acquisition device' (Krashen, 1985:100), which is to say learners cannot learn if their 'affective filter' is high, e.g. due to anxiety or negative emotions raised by the learning environment.

The use of CBLI is supported by Krashen's theories, Noticing Hypothesis, and PT. It engages language learners in contextualised tasks and provides rich contexts for unconscious learning in a natural setting. Further, it also provides formal instruction on grammatical structures as Noticing Hypothesis and PT propose (See section 2.2.3 Language Instruction, p.45).

2.2.2 Sociocultural Perspectives

Different from psycholinguistic theories, the focal point of sociocultural theories is that learning is shaped by environmental factors and that learning and developments take place more effectively when in a social context. Cameron (2001) points out that Vygotsky's notions of 'zone of proximal development' (ZPD) and 'learning as internalisation' have provided solid foundations for sociolinguistic theories. In Vygotsky's work on children's cognitive development, ZPD is defined as 'the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers' (Vygotsky, 1978: 86). In other words, a child's developmental level should consist of two kinds of task competencies: 1) tasks that a child is able to carry out independently and 2) tasks that a child is capable of performing with an adult's assistance.

Sociolinguistics researchers (e.g. Hymes, 1971, 1974; Holliday,1994) consider the goal of language learning to be that of reaching communicative proficiency rather than simply reaching grammatical accuracy. Lightbown and Spada (2006) clarify that 'sociocultural theorists assume that the cognitive processes begin as an external socially mediated activity and eventually become internalized. Other integrationists' models assume that modified input and interaction provide learners with the raw material for internal cognitive processes' (p. 48).

The use of CBLI is supported by sociocultural theories. It engages language learners in essential socially mediated activities and creates opportunities for meaningful interaction which are crucial elements for L2 acquisition from sociocultural perspectives.

2.2.3 Language Instruction

Various studies have been conducted to investigate the effectiveness of instruction and exposure to the target language on language learners' proficiency development. Long (1983a) extensively reviewed these studies and made very a comprehensible comparison of the results. The designs of these studies differ in terms of settings and foci. Some studies address the issue of absolute effect of instruction or its relative utility, while others investigate different combinations of target language exposure and instruction. Long (ibid) concludes, after eliminating the research with non-equivalent control groups or flawed settings, that 'there is considerable evidence that instruction is beneficial 1) for children as well as adults, 2) for beginning, intermediate, and advanced students, 3) on both integrative and discrete-point tests, and 4) in acquisition-rich as well as acquisition-poor environments' (p.359). However, in Long's survey it is neither clear what kind of instruction can make language acquisition more effective nor how to time that instruction. The following studies might help in finding answers for the question of whether instruction can make language learning more effective.

Pienemann (1985) categorizes teaching approaches into two categories: 1) focusing on meanings rather than forms, which he describes as a reaction against the receptive role learners have played in behaviourist approaches; 2) abandoning teaching and following the 'natural order' as Krashen (1981, 1985) proposed. Both types of teaching proposals are condemned as they 'fundamentally contradict the general tenets of current foreign/second language pedagogy' (Pienemann, ibid: 42). Instead, Pienemann (ibid) proposes that explicit instruction of grammatical structures should not be given until learners have acquired the ability/capacity to process it. According to Meisel, Chahsen and Pienemann (1981), learners' interlanguage might

fossilize at early stages of development; when reaching higher stages of acquisition learners have considerable differences in terms of how they simplify the target language. Thus, abandoning teaching would mean not dealing with learners' developmental gaps. Under PT framework, formal instruction is only effective when learners are ready to process target linguistic structures (see developmental sequence in section 3.3.3.1 Rapid Profile). This claim supports the fundamental argument of CBLI that learners learn a language through using the language. Formal instruction on grammar/linguistics items are provided when the learners require such linguistics needs during lessons.

Savignon's (1972, 1991) study supports the argument that language instruction that only focuses on form and accuracy does not provide students with sufficient opportunities to develop communication abilities in the target language. The study also reveals that language learners do not do less well when engaging in freer communication.

To sum up, despite there being little agreement on details of how exactly a language is best learned/taught (e.g. through implicit instruction, explicit instruction, or enhanced instruction), most researchers would agree that some kind of instruction can make language acquisition more effective. However, some recent research shows that language acquisition can be made more effective when there is a combined focus on form and meaning (Allen & Carroll, 1989; Spada, 1987). MacWhinney (1997) pushes for a fuller model of second language learning which would replace the simple dichotomy of explicit versus implicit learning.

The literature reviewed above helps to build the theoretical foundation of the use of CBLI. However, these theories are more relevant to adults than to young learners. Thus, in the following section, I will focus on characteristics of EFL young learners

and the implications of these characteristics for the principles of good practice for teaching English to young learners.

2.3 Younger English Language Learners

This section is divided into three sub-sections. Section 2.3.1 discusses young language learners' characteristics. Section 2.3.2 reviews good practice for teaching English to young children. Section 2.3.3 states the reason this study has chosen Content-based language instruction as a suitable teaching approach to young learners.

Young English language learners (the five to eleven year olds) are different from adults characteristically in many aspects, mostly due to the fact that they are still in the most vital years of children's development. Therefore, all education, including learning a second/foreign language should positively contribute to their development (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990). In this section, I present major characteristics of younger English language learners (the five to seven year olds), who are the target s population in the current study, to elucidate the reasons for considering that Content-based language instruction (CBLI) is more suitable for their learning than other teaching approaches in the current study. The term 'children', from here and after, refers to pupils aged from five to seven.

2.3.1 EFL younger Learners' Characteristics

Children have many characteristics distinctive from adults which should not be neglected. In this section, I reveal a list of characteristics using a literature survey of teaching English to young learners.

Children construct meaning with creative use of language

Children use language creatively (Halliwell, 1992; Moon, 2000). Creative use of language refers to when children use their limited language ability to construct meaning, which very often, they create sentences they never learned or heard before, or use words in a creative way. They try to experiment and work out the rules of the language in their minds without realising they are doing so. The following dialogue provides a good example of a child's creative use of language. The dialogue is derived from one of the four sessions recorded in the current study (also see Appendix 14 Extract of Pre-course subject-learning session -Science class Episode of setting up the experiment, p.316). The class was setting up an experiment for finding out whether dark or light coloured material absorbs more heat.

Teacher S: ***What do you think will happen?*** (The teacher put two glasses of water covered with black and white paper in direct sunlight during a Science experiment.)

Pupil E: ***The sun will go drink the water and no more water.***

Teacher S: ***Maybe the sun's going to drink the water, an' there will be no more water. Why the black and white paper? Why do you think that matters?***

This example shows a six-year-old child using creative language. She was using a phrase she has not heard or been taught before. She made up the phrase '*the sun will go drink the water and no more water*' to express her meaning of how water evaporates by using previously learned language (***the sun, go drink water,*** and ***no more***). The teacher gave feedback with acknowledgement (by repeating the content of the girl's utterance) and embedded correction (by providing the correct language use ***the sun's going to drink the water, an' there will be no more water.***) The teacher's questions and discussion after setting up the experiment allowed her pupils to think, express their thoughts freely and to use the target language in creative ways. Further, the teacher showed her support and interest and asked for more elaboration.

One implication of such a characteristic is that children need opportunities to experiment with language (the sun, go drink water, and no more) and knowledge (water evaporates when it is heated), but they also need feedback to confirm or modify their hypotheses (Moon, 2000).

Children have abilities for grasping meaning

Children are capable of applying the abilities which they have used in learning their first language (Halliwell, 1992; Moon, 2000; Scott & Ytreberg, 1990). They grasp meanings in situations through cues such as intonation, gestures, facial expressions, and body language when they have very limited knowledge of the language itself. They try to make sense out of things by observing others and the context, and experimenting with their hypothesis. Children understand a situation earlier than the language used (ibid). They tend to pay attention to meanings first by using their knowledge of everyday life and clues from contexts. Then they pay attention to the words used to express those meanings.

The most important implication of this characteristic is that context is very important for children to make sense of the world around them. They need to understand meanings of tasks before they carry them out. When the tasks are meaningful, they can better relate themselves to these tasks, and eventually test their hypothesis and learn from carrying out the tasks.

Children learn from physical and hands-on activities

Children between the ages of five and seven are still eagerly exploring their environment and interacting with people (Moon, 2000). At this stage, they still rely mainly on their five senses to notice things, explore and learn about their environments. Hence, the physical world is vital for their learning. It provides bridges between what they already know and what they do not know. The implication of this trait is that teachers can make use of physical and hands-on activities to provide children with opportunities to test their hypotheses and to consolidate new knowledge.

Children prefer working to working in a group

Children aged up to six or seven are said to be very self-centred (Scott & Ytreberg, 1990). While they enjoy working alone but in the company of others when learning or playing, young children can be very reluctant to share or work in a group as they simply do not understand the value of teamwork and collaboration. Hence, when organizing children to work in groups, it is important to explain explicitly why they need to work in a group while carrying out a specific task and to make sure they understand the point of collaboration.

2.3.2 Principles for Good Practice

The following principles are generated from the literature of psycholinguistic theories (Pienemann, 1985, and 1998), socio-cultural theories (Canale & Swain, 1980; Krashen, 1985), and implications made from EFL younger learners' characteristics (Halliwell, 1992; Moon, 2000; Pinter, 2006; Scott & Ytreberg, 1990) in an attempt to sum up the practical and feasible principles for second/foreign language teaching to follow in the present study.

Use Contextualized / Meaningful tasks and texts

This principle has been adapted from the Piagetian theory of the child as an active learner and thinker to the extent that children construct their own knowledge by working with objects or ideas. By providing context or meaningful tasks as objects or ideas in sense making, we help learners make sense of the new language.

Motivate / stimulate communication and interaction

Provide learners with opportunities to interact with the target language. People learn a language through using it. In order to increase the desire of using the target language, learners need to be stimulated to communicate. Interaction stimulates communication.

Provide Scaffolding

Bruner (1983, 1990) believes that language is the most important tool for children's cognitive development. He sees language as transportation for knowledge. It is through 'talk', verbal language, that adults guide children to solve problems. In addition, according to Vygotsky (1978), learners will not be reaching into their ZPD

when they are left alone. They need to interact with adults and peers who have more knowledge than the children in order to do so.

The metaphor of scaffolding has been adopted by educators both in L1 and L2 to describe the nature of this assisted performance, which involves not only helping 'to do', but, moreover, helping to know and learn 'how to do'. Rosenshine and Meister (1993) point out that any forms of support from the teacher, even sometimes from peers to help learners, to bridge the gap between their current stage and the intended goal, and the use of visual aids or techniques, can be scaffolding.

Encourage Top-Down Process

Respect the natural order of grammar acquisition, but do not over simplify learners' communication needs. Encourage learners to use a top-down process to make sense out of the new language and make good use of their instinct to grasp meaning as noted above. In other words, in order to reach a higher level of communicative competence learners should focus on meanings rather than forms. However, this is not to say that language teachers should abandon teaching forms completely, rather they should provide form instructions at appropriate times (Pienemann, 1985).

Varieties of Activity

Studies have shown that young learners' concentration span is much shorter than adults' (Halliwell, 1992; Scott & Ytreberg, 1990). In order to catch their attention, we need to incorporate not just interesting and motivating tasks but also implement a variety of them. Via varieties of activities and tasks, we benefit learners by helping them to concentrate as well as stimulating their creativity through exploring the world.

2.3.3 Summary

The above-mentioned features of EFL young learners and good practice for teaching them underpin the CBLI approach. The model of CBLI is studied in the current research (see 2.4.3 Model of CBLI in the Current Study in p.70 and 3.2.3 The Programme studied on p. 96 for detailed discussions). The content element of the programme in the current study, namely the art projects, Science class and Maths class, provided meaningful tasks and texts and created rich contexts to stimulate the learners' motivation to communicate and participate. Within these subject-learning sessions, learners had plenty of opportunities to engage in various types of hands-on activities.

2.4 Content-Based Language Instruction

Content-based language instruction (CBLI) usually refers to learning a second or foreign language through academic subject matter, such as Science, Maths, Art or Social Studies. It is an approach originally used for teaching learners with English as their second language (ESL learners) in combining language with disciplinary learning. The use of CBLI is aimed at building pupils' grade-level content knowledge and developing English proficiency at the same time. Brinton et al.(1989) defined CBLI as 'the integration of particular content with language-teaching aims' and further elaborate it as 'the language curriculum is based directly on the academic needs of the students and generally follows the sequence determined by a particular subject matter in dealing with the language problem which students encounter. The focus for students is on acquiring information via the second language and, in the process, developing their academic language skills' (p. 2). CBLI provides language learners with a means of continuing their academic or cognitive development while acquiring academic language proficiency. With a CBLI-approach language class, the activities are designed according to the specific subject matter being taught. Learners are encouraged to think and learn through the use of the target language. In Brinton et al's (ibid) words CBLI views 'the target language largely as the vehicle through which subject matter content is learned rather than as the immediate object of study' (p. 5).

Mohan (1986) asserted the importance of integrating language learning with content learning:

> Regarding language as a medium of learning naturally leads to a cross-curriculum perspective. We have seen that reading specialists contrast learning to read with reading to learn. Writing specialists contrast learning

> to write with writing to learn. Similarly, language education specialists should distinguish between language learning and using language to learn. Helping students use language to learn requires us to look beyond the language domain to all subject areas and to look beyond language learning to education in general. Outside the isolated language classroom students learn language and content at the same time. Therefore we need a broad perspective which integrates language and content learning. (p. 18)

Indeed, there is a necessity to address the difference between learning a language and using a language to learn, especially when the learners are in a situation where they have to study subject-matter in a second or foreign language.

2.4.1 Origin of CBLI

Although the term CBLI was not proposed until late1980s (Brinton et al., 1989), the idea of integrating learners' other learning needs into language instruction is not innovative. As a matter of fact, much research supports the importance and necessity of integrating content knowledge into language teaching (Allen & Howard, 1981, Asher, 1977; Cummins, 1979, 1983; Mohan,1986;). There are few types of language teaching approaches well documented and studied in relation to the benefit of the use of content subject matters to learners' target language development. Some of these approaches, Language across the curriculum, English for Specific Purposes, and Immersion Education, will be reviewed in brief.

Immersion Education is probably the most documented. An immersion programme is 'a form of bilingual education in which students who speak the language of the majority of the population receive part of their instruction through the medium of a second language and part through their first language. Both the second and the first language are used to teach regular school subjects, such as Mathematics, Science or Physical Education in addition to language arts' (Genesee, 1987:1). It was an innovative content-based language teaching first begun in Quebec in 1965, known as the French Immersion programme. The experiment was carried out in a class with a French-native speaking teacher and English-native speaking pupils in a kindergarten. The experiment was also adapted and tested with students at different age levels, such as primary school, secondary school and undergraduate level (Swain, 1974; Chamot, 1983, 1985; Chamot & O'Malley, 1987; Lightbown & Spada, 1989; and Tarone & Swain, 1995). The results showed a big success for the experimental immersion programmes in that the learners participating in those programmes achieved both a high proficiency of functional language and mastery of school subject matter.

Language across the Curriculum was the British government's policy of teaching language as a part of instruction in other curricular areas by the recommendation of the Bullock Report 'A Language for Life' (Bullock Committee, 1975, cited in Mohan 1986) for 'all aspects of teaching the use of English, including reading, writing, and speech (ibid)'. The committee suggested that students, in this case L1 speakers of English, should not just be provided with opportunities to learn to read and write, but also should be provided with opportunities to read and write to learn. Consequently, it has become widely acknowledged 'that the teaching of language should be integrated with all aspects of the curriculum' (Mohan, 1986: iii). Disciplinary learning does not just engage language as a 'pass medium for receiving concepts'. Learning is in fact not simply through language but with language (Maryland, 1977). Since then the idea has been incorporated into second language teaching and learning.

English/Language for Specific Purposes (ESP/LSP) is most commonly used in Britain at university level and in occupational settings. It is used to make language courses more relevant to learners' needs and is aimed at preparing language learners for real-world demands. In order to serve the programme function, both pragmatic and experience-based instructions are involved in the curriculum. The ESP approach began due to a number of practical concerns, such as the need to prepare the growing number of non-English background students to study at North American and British universities from the 1950s, the need to prepare materials for students with special language needs due to employment, and the need to teach young or adult immigrants etc. (Richards, 2001). Both overseas students and immigrants at work not only need to communicate socially both inside and outside school or work, but they also need to understand academic-related or work-related language. Thus it is a sensible movement to integrate specialised subjects into language teaching according to individuals' learning needs.

Much recent research also supports the importance of introducing academic English to second language learners as its use and usage differ from everyday language in terms of grammatical features, and frequency of genre.

2.4.2 Why use CBLI with EFL/ESL learners?

In this section I discuss rationales and advantages of the use of CBLI backing with empirical study findings for the past few decades. Section 2.4.2.1 will examine the theoretical underpinnings of CBLI. Section 2.4.2.2 is focused on practical considerations and empirical findings of the use of CBLI.

The use of CBLI with both ESL and EFL learners has been widespread since the 1970's, yet it did not attract very much attention from researchers until the 1980's mainly due to the population growth of ESL/EFL young learners and the realisation by SLA researchers that 'cognitive development and language development go hand in hand; language is a tool through which the child comes to understand the world' (Snow, Met & Genesee, 1989:201). There are various reasons for the acceleration of the implementation of CBLI, including both practical and theoretical grounds. Snow et al. (ibid) summarise a list of rationales to incorporate content teaching into second/foreign language instruction. Likewise, Mohan (1986) justifies combining content and language with language learning and teaching theories as well as a tremendous amount of positive findings in empirical studies.

2.4.2.1 Theoretical Underpinnings

The CBLI approach to second and foreign instruction is very often based on the assumption that 'through content teaching, second language learning will be enhanced' (Swain, 1988: 68). Beyond that assumption, in fact, there are many theories forming the foundation of CBLI. The works of Cummins, Swain, and Krashen are the major sources of support for CBLI from second language research (Grabe & Stoller, 1997). Richards and Rodgers (2001) summarize a number of

assumptions about the nature of language underlying CBLI: 1) language is text- and discourse-based; 2) language use draws on integrated skills; and 3) language is purposeful.

CBLI also receives support from various educational, cognitive psychology and training studies, such as cooperative learning, learning strategy instruction and second language acquisition research.

2.4.2.1.1 Second Language Acquisition Research

Cummins (1979, 1984, and 2000) proposed two types of proficiency of foreign language learners: a) cognitive academic language proficiency, and b) basic interpersonal communication skills. He differentiated academic English from English used to communicate on a daily basis, which he referred to as BICS. BICS is a type of surface fluency, which learners acquire when they interact with peers and teachers. Therefore it is regarded as social language, which normally takes 2 to 3 years for foreign or second language learners to acquire. Accordingly, the notion of cognitive academic language proficiency refers to types of language skills and concepts needed in order to achieve success in academic learning contexts. As to basic interpersonal communication skills, it represents language skills associated with interpersonal and social communication. He further argues that while it takes one around 3 years to achieve BISC competence, this is not the case for cognitive academic language proficiency. Instead, it takes up to 7 years for an L2 pupil to acquire a level of academic English proficiency comparable to native peers. Cummins (1984) stresses basic interpersonal communication proficiency is not sufficient for students to succeed in academic learning contexts and further usages to develop learners' cognitive academic language proficiency. Chamot and O'Malley (1987) developed a

prototype of CBLI called the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach, which aimed to help EFL learners to develop their academic skills and linguistic needs in their later engagement in mainstream education. Certain aspects of language skills are notably more important for learners' cognitive and academic progress than others. Further, learners can be trained in these skills (Chamot & O'Malley, ibid).

Output Hypothesis, proposed by Swain (1985) intending to address limitations of original design of CBLI models, argues that immersion students lack output opportunities – 'First the students are simply not given – especially in later grades – adequate opportunities to use the target language in the classroom context. Second, they are not being 'pushed' in their output. That is to say, the immersion students have developed, in the early grades, strategies to get their meaning across which are adequate in the situation they find themselves in: they are understood by their teachers and peers. There appears to be little social or cognitive pressure to produce language that reflects more appropriately or precisely their intended meaning: there is no push to be more comprehensible than they already are' (p. 245). Despite the general success of French in Canada, it was also recognised that, with many years of French L2 input, the learners from this programme, despite achieving L2 comprehension skills and subject matter learning, failed to demonstrate equivalent proficiency in productive skills (Harley & Swain, 1984). The output hypothesis argues that students' learning depends on explicit attention to productive language skills, speaking and writing (Grabe & Stoller, 1997). Swain (1985) stresses that, if learners are to achieve native-like proficiency, apart from exposure to comprehensible input, they also need opportunities to produce 'comprehensible output' and to mobilize their 'emerging grammatical competence'. Grabe and Stoller (1997) claim that as a result of these findings 'immersion approaches are not giving greater prominence to language learning activities' (p. 7). Many studies generated by Output Hypothesis

also reported positive findings for specific functions of output: for the fluency function (DeKeyser, 1997), the hypothesis-testing function (Pica, 1988; Pica Holliday, Lewis, & Morgenthaler, 1989; Ellis and He, 1999), the metalinguistic function (Kowal & Swain, 1994) and the noticing function (Izumi, Bigelow, Fujiwara, & Fearnow, 1999; Izumi & Bigelow, 2000; Izumi, 2002). During the process of producing the target language, learners have opportunities both to practise using explicit knowledge of target linguistic forms, and to test implicit knowledge (hypothesis-testing function) they notice (noticing function) from the intensive exposure to the target language. Further, due to the intensive exposure to the target language, learners are also more likely to come across new linguistic items and communication breakdowns which provide them with opportunities to use learning skills and strategies (metalinguistic function) and communication skills and strategies (fluency function).

Brinton et al. (1989) noted that Krashen's (1985) Input Hypothesis provides a strong argument for the use of the CBLI approach in second language acquisition. It is claimed to be the central part of an overall theory of second language acquisition alongside the other four hypotheses: the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, the Natural Order Hypothesis, The Monitor Hypothesis, and the Affective Filter Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985). CBLI programmes provide a learning environment that includes explicit teaching and implicit learning for language learners which many research findings consider is the key to successful learning of a second/foreign language (Dekeyser, 1997; MacWhinney, 1997; Robinson, 1997; see section 2.2.3 Language Instruction in p.45 for review). Brinton et al. (1989) comment that the learning environment constructed by CBLI programmes satisfies the necessary learning conditions for 'the acquisition of a high level of proficiency in listening and reading' (p. 4).

2.4.2.1.2 Training Studies

Strategy instruction is embedded in the CBLI-approach curriculum and is thought to be one of the best opportunities to promote strategy learning (O'Malley et al., 1985; Chamot & O'Malley, 1986; and Brown et al., 1996). Learning strategy training has been proven to be trainable and effective for second or foreign language acquisition (Oxford, 1990). Nonetheless, it is also difficult to carry out (Duffy, 1993). Strategy training research has demonstrated that strategy instructions work most effectively when are integrated within the curriculum as a daily component of learning activities.

Cooperative learning is consistent with the goals of CBLI as it is also one of the common teaching methods employed in CBLI (Crandall, 1993). Cooperative learning, generally in small groups of perhaps four to six students, can improve learning. The idea is to promote socialising, communication and interaction in the language classroom. Learners participating in group work presumably interact more with their peers. It is through the interaction that learners are given opportunities to negotiate what they hear and make the input more comprehensible (Long, 1983b, 1983c; Pica, 1988). Slaven's (1995) research shows that it leads to greater student cooperation, higher motivation and more positive attitudes toward learning and greater self-esteem.

2.4.2.1.3 Cognitive Psychology

Anderson's research (1983, 2000) on cognitive theory provides a strong theoretical base for a prototype of CBLI, Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach, launched by Chamot and O'Malley (1987). From Anderson's (2000) point of view, information is stored in the memory in two forms: a) declarative knowledge and b) procedural knowledge. One can process the declarative knowledge without

acquiring procedural knowledge, but can also acquire procedural knowledge of a certain task without having the related declarative knowledge as noted in a previous section (see section 2.2.1 Psycholinguistic Paradigm in p.39 for review). Chamot and O'Malley (1987) have applied Anderson's theory in three preliminary ways:

1. The content component of the CALLA (Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach) model represents declarative knowledge. This includes the concepts, facts, and skills underlying Science, Mathematics, and Social Studies at the student's grade level. An extension of these content areas to include English language arts would add grammatical knowledge, rhetorical knowledge, and knowledge about literary themes, plots, and story grammars to this store of declarative knowledge.
2. The language development component of CALLA aims to teach the procedural knowledge that students need to use language as a tool for learning. In this component, students are given sufficient practice in using language in academic contexts so that language comprehension and production become automatic and students develop the ability to communicate about academic subjects.
3. The learning strategies instruction component of the CALLA model builds on Anderson's theory and suggests ways in which teachers can foster autonomy in their students. Many of the teachers can foster autonomy in their students' (p.233).

2.4.2.2 Practical Consideration & Empirical Findings

The competitive learning environment in EFL countries advocates demands for bilingual education. Nunan's (2003) investigation found that the grade level in which

English is introduced as a compulsory subject in schools has been shifted to a lower grade in the Asia-Pacific region, such as in China, Korea, and Taiwan. The Ministry of Education (MOE, 2001) in Taiwan, aiming to promote bilingualism, has introduced English as a compulsory subject from grade 3 from 2001, and allowed schools to include the subject in the primary curriculum as early as grade 1 for situational needs. With limited schooling time available, combining content in language learning has provided a reasonable alternative for such a competitive environment in EFL contexts (see Educational Context of the Current Study: English as a Foreign Language in Taiwan in p.8 for review).

Met (1994) comments on how CBLI reflects the character of the communicative approach of second language teaching saying that beyond the early stages of exchanging personal topics, 'other purposes of communicative language tasks may reflect students' needs or desire to talk about the world around them, the world of ideas. As such, using language to communicate about content is both consistent with and supportive of communicative language teaching' (p.37). The nature of CBLI programme design echoes the conditions proposed by Tucker (1998) for successful programmes in terms of providing students with multiple language proficiency and access to academic content learning. In addition to that, Savignon (1991) argues that CBLI is a natural concomitant of the communicative approach of second or foreign language instruction which emphasises the use of language for expressing and negotiating meanings. The use of authentic materials and class set-up in CBLI form a 'communicative environment' (Mohan, 1986) and further provides language learners with opportunities of authentic communication in academic settings. Singer (1990) concluded that thematically organized materials, which are one of the typical CBLI programmes, are easier to remember and learn. Additionally, Adamson (1990) reveals that coherent and meaningful information, which is a common component of a

proper CBLI curriculum, leads to deeper processing and better learning. Furthermore, Alexander, Kulikowich, and Jetton (1994) concluded that students are better at processing challenging materials, recalling information and elaborating when involved in subject-matter learning that they are interested in.

Taking social context into account, there is a demand for the United States to accommodate school-age immigrants in mainstream education as well as helping adult immigrants to settle into the society and work environments. Much research into education and linguistics motivated the establishment of CBLI in the United States as they found ESL students did not perform as well as their English native-speaking peers even though these learners' communication skills in the target language met their social needs. Research often showed that ESL learners' proficiency did not correlate to their academic performance (Saville-Troike, 1984; Cummins, 1984; Mohan, 1986; and Collier, 1987). Saville-Troike (1984) concluded that there is no correlation between the amount of time the subjects in her study spent on interacting in English and their academic performance. She comments that there is a need 'to recognize that there is a qualitative difference between the communicative tactics and skills that children find effective for meeting their social needs and goals and those that are necessary for academic achievement in the classroom' (p. 216). These findings advocated the development and implementation of CBLI in the United States.

As to Canada, the soaring interests of CBLI are mainly due to its unique social and political context, with French as the dominant language in Quebec and the rest speaking solely English (Swain, 1974). After the successful innovation in Quebec known as the French Immersion programme in 1965, CBLI has been widely implemented in different levels of education in Canada. Much research has reported encouraging results. Spada and Lightbown (1989) concluded that: a) learners in

intensive CBLI programmes developed more positive attitudes toward the second language than learners in regular language programmes; b) learners in intensive CBLI programmes significantly outperform their peers in regular programmes in terms of academic skills and second language proficiency; and c) learners in such programmes tend to have more contact with the target language outside of schooling (e.g. watching TV programmes in the target language, engaging in target language conversations) compared with their peers in regular programmes. Heining-Boynton (1992) suggests the use of CBLI as a foreign language programme reinforcing primary education in the United States. Kaiser (1996) further stresses the strength of CBLI in that it provides a foundation for relevance to the overall school programme. There are also various studies which have found that CBLI promotes natural language learning and higher-order thinking skills, academic skills as well as enabling learners to attain a higher level of communicative competence compared with learners in regular primary foreign language programmes (e.g. Cummins, 1984; James, 2006; Huang, 2003; Mohan, 1986;).

CBLI is believed to have many benefits for learning languages for Academic purposes. The rich contexts it provides scaffold learning and generate learning interests and motivations which are thought to be the most encouraging (Genesee, 1987; Met, 1998; Parkinson 2000; Gibbons 2003). Empirical findings also endorse that the use of CBLI can be very effective for both second language and content learning (Genesee, 1983; Mohan, 1986; Adamson, 1990; Schleppegrell & Achugar, 2003). Parkinson (2000) identifies specific linguistic needs for ESL learners in science; Short (1994), Schleppegrell (2001) and Schleppegrell, Achugar, and Oteiza (2004) articulate the importance of providing language input for ESL learners in mainstream social studies, especially on academic reading skills saying 'social studies in general relies heavily on the text book (and teacher's lecture) to present the bulk of

the information students are expected to learn... The amount of reading and writing in Social Studies classes surpasses that in most Maths or Science classes, and the reading passages are long and filled with abstract concepts and unfamiliar schema that cannot be easily demonstrated' (Short, 1994:591). A study of Naudé, Pretorius, and Vandeyar's (2003) also found a significant link between limited language proficiency and non-readiness for mathematics instruction at the foundation phase based on empirical data. They further specified that this non-readiness for mathematics instruction was due to limited thinking skills, which constitute limited cognitive academic language proficiency.

Despite how sophisticated a CBLI programme design can be in terms of addressing learners' situational linguistics and academic learning needs, it is not to replace mainstream learning or be an alternative to it. Instead, CBLI is to help learners obtain the language skills needed in order to master content learning in a foreign or second language. Davison and Williams (2001) suggest that 'although content can be a basis for the organisation of language and cultural elements at the level of the unit of work, mainstream subject content alone, no matter how accessible or interesting, is not sufficient to provide a properly developed ESL curriculum' (p.64). In an attempt to clarify, Schleppegrell et al. (2004) comment on the integration of content and language in CBLI: 'language is inseparable from social contexts and always makes meanings relevant to particular situations and cultures, we are not integrating language and content. Language and content are already integrated' (p.90).

2.4.3 Model of CBLI in the Current Study

There are various models of CBLI, mainly based on learners' situational needs. In this section, the closest model of CBLI to the current study, theme-based language instruction, is extensively reviewed and a comparison is drawn with the two most commonly used models, Sheltered content instruction and Adjunct language instruction. Theme-based language instruction is the least content-involved model and usually employs an extensive amount of simplified authentic materials. Sheltered content instruction is used with a group of language learners with the same learning interest and the same proficiency level. A sheltered content lesson is typically instructed by a content specialist and assisted by a language teacher. In this method both instructors attend the same lessons, the language teacher providing the learners with the linguistic forms that might be needed in the lesson whereas the content specialist teaches disciplined learning with simplified target language when necessary. Adjunct language instruction provides learners with two separate courses, subject-matter and language, in which the language course is 'adjunct' to the subject-matter learning and deals with learners' linguistic needs in that particular academic context.

2.4.3.1 Theme-Based Language Instruction

Theme-based language instruction, sometimes referred to as topic-based course, is the CBLI variation with the least content knowledge taught in the curriculum. In a Theme-based language instruction course, the language class is structured around themes or topics. This model was the implemented model of CBLI in the current study. In contrast to the traditional language class, materials are usually generated or adapted from authentic texts by the teachers in Theme-based language instruction

courses. More importantly, the chosen theme or topic is integrated into the teaching of all skills. For illustration, a three-month Theme-based language instruction might be organised around a few unrelated topics, such as animals, holidays and the environment. The main topics might first be presented by reading stories. Then the topics and vocabulary are recycled in discussions, debates and listening tasks. Finally, with the materials used and resources obtained in class, students produce project work or compose a written assignment. It is thought that learners in Theme-based language instruction courses can 'move to higher levels of language processing (e.g., comparison, separating fact and opinion) through the variety of text types, formats, and activities to which they are exposed' (Brinton et al., 1989: 15). Through the use of authentic reading materials in theme-based language instruction, learners have more opportunities to practice/use their advanced language skills, such as analysing text by comparing/ separating information embedded in the text. Learners are also encouraged to express their opinions on the topics/themes.

Due to the strong links and topic relevance amongst lessons in Theme-based instruction, learners are intensively exposed to the target content and language. Learners have more opportunities to reference from one lesson to the others. Learners will use higher level of cognitive processing in the target language while referencing. Take 'bug' as a theme for six-year old children for example. They read a story about a bug in Reading class, learn about names and functions of a bug's body parts in Science class, and make a bug craft in Art class. During their Science class, they will learn about what classified as a bug and the context built up in the Reading class could give them a clear picture of what the newly introduced vocabulary refers to. While making a craft in their Art class, they will need their newly acquired concept of bug from Science class and their imagination of a bug's character to create their own piece of work. Throughout the theme, learners need to use their existing knowledge

of content and language to process and acquire the next bit of input and output of the target language and knowledge content.

Theme-based language instruction is the most widely implemented CBLI model, especially in EFL contexts. Following the development of Language for Specific Purposes, Theme-based language instruction is especially popular in the situation when learners have limited English. Chamot and O'Malley (1987) launched an experimental Theme-based language instruction course in Canada, known as the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach, in 1986. This approach was also adapted by the programme in the present study. The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach is an instructional method designed for learners with limited English proficiency who are preparing to join mainstream schools. Chamot and O'Malley (ibid) further argued that although minority-language students in ESL programmes can develop many important skills in English and become proficient in daily conversation, they very often face severe difficulties handling the mainstream academic programme. Hence, it is necessary to address the needs of second language learners in curriculum planning.

Anderson's cognitive theory proposed in the 1980's forms the theoretical foundation of the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (ibid). Anderson (2000) considers that human brains store information in the memory in two forms: declarative knowledge refers to what we know about a given topic, and procedural knowledge represents what we know how to do. There are three major components in a Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach programme: selected content topics, language instruction, and learning strategy instruction (ibid). Such programmes are aimed at providing a broad framework for using language to learn by the integration of language. Nonetheless, unlike the Immersion programme, it is not intended to replace mainstream education, but to provide ESL learners with

opportunities to simulate language use in a real-life situation. The topics incorporated are authentic and important for the grade level of the students. More importantly, the content should be based on the mainstream curriculum for the grade level at which the learners will be participating. Hence it is recommended, when at the stage of selecting topics for a Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach programme, that the language teacher consults mainstream subject-area textbooks for the grade level concerned. Under Anderson's framework, the content component of the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach model represents declarative knowledge whereas theme knowledge, concepts, facts and skills underlying Science, Maths and other subject learning at the learners' grade levels as well as grammatical knowledge are taught in language input classes.

The second component of the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach, language instruction, focuses on providing learners with opportunities of using the target language as a mean of learning academic subjects. Language demands of the content component need to be analysed 'so that students can be taught the actual language functions, structures, and subject-specific vocabulary that they will need when they enter the mainstream content class' (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987: 236). These language demands, which Cummins (1983) refers to as cognitive academic language proficiency, have to be addressed specifically in the context of subject-matter learning. The component of language instruction facilitates the development of procedural knowledge in Anderson's memory storage framework as it aims at teaching the students to use language as a tool for learning. As Chamot and O'Malley (ibid) describe 'in this component, students are given sufficient practice in using language in academic contents so that language comprehension and production become automatic and students develop the ability to communicate about the academic subjects' (p. 234).

The final component of the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach is the learning strategies instruction. Many studies support the idea that use of learning strategies facilitates language development and leads to learner autonomy. Learners are taught three categories of learning strategies derived from O'Malley et al. (1985) and other second language research. This component mainly focuses on teaching learning strategies in first language reading and problem-solving and second language learning strategies. Metacognitive strategies involve broader planning, monitoring evaluation of learners' comprehension and production processes, whereas cognitive strategies develop learners' skills in mentally manipulating materials to be learnt. Social-affective strategies encourage learners to interact with others to assist learning, such as asking questions for clarification and coordinating and cooperating in group work.

The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach is a popular form of Theme-based language instruction and is intended to bridge the gap between ESL or bilingual instruction and mainstream education. It is effective for learners with intermediate and advanced levels of language proficiency (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987). This approach is particularly popular in bilingual kindergartens, private schools and Busibans in Taiwan.

2.4.3.2 Comparison of the CBLI Model in the Current Study with other models

There are three major shared features of the three most common models of CBLI, Theme-based language instruction, Sheltered language instruction, and Adjunct. Table 2.2 (p.76) summarises the features of these CBLI models. First, all models of CBLI, Theme-based, Sheltered, and Adjunct language instructions share the foremost essence of CBLI, that content is at the centre of course organization (Brinton, 1989).

Many language learning theories support the idea that language is best learnt in a meaningful, contextualised, communicative and supportive setting. Moreover, recent researchers (James, 2006; Nikula, 2007; Swain & Lapkin, 1995) have shown how learning and language acquisition scaffold each other through collaborative and interactional processes in which learners interact appropriately for their own authentic purposes. The second feature these models share is that the language teaching is mainly focusing on function rather than form and stressing fluency rather than accuracy. The third shared feature is that all materials used in these models are authentic in the sense that they were not originally designed for language teaching or learning purposes although some are adapted or modified for language teaching.

Despite sharing the same fundamental principles of course design, the three models differ in many aspects. **Table 2.2** (p.76) summarises the characteristic differences of the three models in terms of applicability. These three models are different in five major aspects, contexts/setting and target population, aims of course, programme format, teaching staff, and assessment foci. In these three models, both Sheltered content instruction and Adjunct language instruction are often implemented in mainstream schools, such as secondary schools or universities, whereas Theme-based language instruction is normally operated in language institutions or EFL settings. Furthermore, Theme-based language instruction is suitable for low to advanced learners and especially with young learners such as kindergarten or primary school children because its flexible programme design of topics/themes is usually more concerned with general knowledge and more basic academic skills. Unlike Theme-based language instruction, Sheltered content instruction and Adjunct language instruction aim to develop more advanced academic skills and are more demanding in terms of cognition development and the language skills needed for such development.

Hence Adjunct language instruction and Sheltered content instruction are only recommended for secondary or more advanced learners.

Table 2.2 Comparisons of CBLI Models

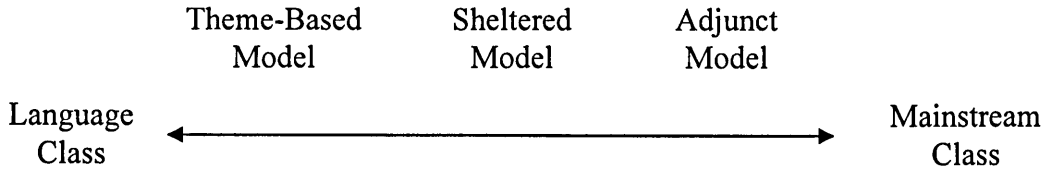
	Theme-based	**Sheltered**	**Adjunct**
Contexts & Target Population	Language institutes in EFL or ESL settings Low to advanced L2 learners in all ages	Mainstream in ESL or EFL settings Intermediate to high intermediate L2 learners in secondary or higher education	Mainstream in ESL settings High intermediate to advanced L2 learners in secondary or higher education
Sample Studies	Chamot & O'Malley (1987) CALLA **Current Study**	Brinton et al. (1989) University of Ottawa in 1982	Brinton et al (1989) Freshman Summer Programme in University of California, Los Angeles
Aims	Developing L2 competences within specific content/topic	Mastering target Content teaching	Mastering target content materials & Developing L2 academic discourse and transferable academic skills.
Programme Format	Target-language-medium language class with content-subject/ topics as course backbone.	Content courses with language teaching elements and aims	Concurrent content and language courses with linked curriculum
Teaching Staffs	Language teachers	Content subject teachers with language teachers co-teaching	Content teachers and language teachers run separate classes with coordinated curriculum
Assessment Focus	Functional Language skills	Content subject mastery	Content course: content mastery Language course: Functional language skills

The aims of these models are the most notable differences. Theme-based language instruction is primarily aimed at developing L2 competences within specific topics/themes while Sheltered content instruction is focused on developing content knowledge, and language learning is incidental. In Adjunct language instruction courses, content and language learning carry equal weight, 'while at the same time introducing students to general academic discourse to assist them in developing transferable academic skills' (Brinton et al., 1989:18).

As to the third major difference, programme format, the three models differ in proportions of explicit language teaching embedded in the content courses. In Theme-based language instruction, language teaching is the primary aim of the programme while Sheltered content instruction is focusing on helping students master content teaching. Adjunct language instruction has a greater degree of integrating language and content learning as it links language and content courses.

Coordination of teaching staff shapes one of the major differences due to the different aims and rationales of programme design. These three models also differ in the degree of focus on language development. Theme-based language instruction programmes are solely taught by language teachers as they are aimed at developing cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). The primary aim of Sheltered content instruction, on the contrary, is to help learners to master the programme content. The first 15 to 20 minutes of language instruction prior to each lesson is to help learners deal with anticipated linguistic difficulties which might occur later in the lesson. While Theme-based language instruction and Sheltered content instructions are at the extremes, Adjunct language instruction takes a different approach and emphasises a combination of both content and language development.

Figure 2.2 A Content-based Continuum



From Brinton et al. (1989:23)

Brinton et al. (1989) elaborate that these classic CBLI models should be viewed as different points on a continuum as illustrated in Figure 2.2 A Content-based Continuum. The far left of the continuum indicates the traditional foreign or second language classroom whereas the far right represents the mainstream class in the target language. Regardless of which type of CBLI is used, all the models 'share the fact that content is the point of departure or organizing principle of the course – a feature that groups out of the common underlying assumption that successful language learning occurs when students are presented with target language material in a meaningful, contextualized form with the primary focus on acquiring information' (ibid: 17). Collier (1989) and Scott (1974) also back this assumption. Their studies support that, in formal education settings, a second language is best learned when the focus is on processing content knowledge rather than mastery of linguistic forms.

2.4.4 Common Teaching Practices in CBLI

In this section some of the most commonly used teaching practices in CBLI implemented in the current study are briefly reviewed. It is very common to find that a CBLI programme employs several teaching techniques at the same time, as CBLI sees learning as a dynamic process and should prepare learners for using the target language alongside appropriate study skills in academic engagement. Crandall (1993) noted that cooperative learning, task-based teaching, whole language approach, and graphic organizers are the most commonly employed teaching methods in CBLI. Stroller (1997:3) also endorses CBLI and allows 'the natural integration of sound language teaching practices such as alternative means of assessment, apprenticeship learning, cooperative learning, integrated-skills instruction, project work, scaffolding, strategy training, and the use of graphic organizers'.

Cooperative language learning, which is also known as Collaborative Learning, is a teaching method that employs group or pair work/tasks extensively aiming at creating maximum peer interaction and promoting peer-tutoring and peer-monitoring. Cooperative language learning is frequently used in CBLI also because CBLI often faces the challenge of mixed-level classes in terms of either language proficiency levels or academic achievement. The adaptation of Cooperative learning allows students with different levels of proficiency or academic ability to participate in the same task with the same goal. Crandall (1994:4) noted that 'cooperative groups encourage students to communicate, to share insights, test hypotheses, and jointly construct knowledge' both in the language and content classroom.

Task-based learning, also known as experiential learning, is highly favoured in CBLI programmes with older children. It refers to 'an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching' (Richards &

Rodgers, 2001). Although extensive literature has paid much attention to defining what exactly can be accounted for as a task in a language classroom very little agreement has been reached. Skehan (1998) and Ellis (2003) propose lists of task characteristics. The proposed lists are common in the following:

1. Tasks are meaning-focused which generates authentic communication with certain goals to achieve.
2. Tasks involve cognitive processes.
3. Tasks emphasize relating to real world situations
4. Tasks promote experiential learning, learning via doing.
5. Tasks should require use of all 4 language skills.

The characteristics summarized above form fundamental principles of the use of tasks in CBLI. Tasks are employed in CBLI as a means to provide appropriate contexts for developing thinking and study skills. Learners learn by carrying out specific tasks or projects (Crandall, 1994).

The Whole Language approach is based on the concept that learners should experience language as a whole as 'if language isn't kept whole, it isn't language anymore' (Rigg, 1991:522). There are four fundamental principles which underlie this approach: language is presented as a whole and not isolated pieces; 2) encourage top-down processes rather than bottom-up ones; 3) 4 skills are taught in integration; and 4) presuming language is learned through social interaction with others, hence learners often work in groups (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992). These principles are compatible with those underlying CBLI. This approach emphasizes the use of authentic language and meaningful engagement in the target language. It heavily implements content-centred language classes, which include literature, journal keeping or dialogue journals, process-based writing, writing portfolios and language experience stories (Crandall, 1992; Richards & Rodger, 2001). However, unlike the

Whole Language teaching curriculum, in CBLI programmes whole language teaching activities are only used in a topic of a lesson or an item in the syllabus rather than an overall philosophy of teaching and learning.

Graphic organizers are 'schematic, pictorial representations of underlying organizational patterns found in oral/written discourse' (Brinton et al., 1989:266). They can be in the form of graphs, realia, tables, maps, flow charts, timelines, and Venn diagrams. They are used in CBLI programmes as visual aids to make implicit patterns explicit. Mohan and Huang (2002) employed various types of graphic organizers as worksheets and recycled the completed worksheets as visual aids to help learners in organizing ideas or content and language for presentation. They concluded that with the help of those visual aids, the learners were able to produce longer discourses of the six types of Knowledge Structures (also known as Knowledge Process) proposed by Mohan (1986), describing, sequencing, making choices, classifying, formulating principles and evaluating.

In the current study, the teacher incorporated a series of activities surrounding the theme of 'bugs' (whole language approach) whereas the learners were required to carry out science experimental tasks (task-based approach) and note down procedures and results (use of graphic organizers), keeping portfolios for their written drafts (whole language approach), and conduct a project, making a model of the bugs' habitat, in a cooperative manner (cooperative learning) in groups.

2.4.5 Drawbacks of CBLI

Despite the numerous advantages noted in previous sections, CBLI has its downside. Cummins (1984) criticizes that such an approach to teaching can only be effective when the learners have acquired prior abilities to communicate in the target language which might take several years before their proficiency reaches the age-appropriate level of cognitive challenging materials. From a bilingualism perspective, he further argues that this delay of schooling can be very damaging for students from disadvantaged minority groups.

Cummins' (ibid) critique is convincing particularly in the current study context in terms of the frequent difficulty in finding age-appropriate and academically challenging materials for EFL learners with lower proficiency levels. Nevertheless, research in recent years also stresses that it is important to recognise that CBLI is still language teaching and the focus should be on the language itself rather to replace mainstream education (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987; Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2004).

Apart from the issue noted above, CBLI also receives criticism from other areas of SLA research. Some of the most reported issues which have direct impact on the present study are discussed in this section.

CBLI is only effective for Learners with certain abilities

Research also finds that CBLI would not be beneficial when learners cannot comprehend or communicate in the class arguing that 'those who do not understand English are certain to find their classroom experiences wholly incomprehensible and in no way meaningful' (Mohan, 1986:10). In other words, they have to be able to grasp the material and the teacher's messages, also the teacher must comprehend the learners' messages sufficiently for comment or feedback. The use of CBLI was not

effective for the learners with lower proficiency levels in the current study. Rather, the school needed to put them in an intensive language programme before relocating these learners to a regular CBLI class.

Are cognitive skills taught in CBLI appropriate to all disciplines?

Mohan (ibid) further reviewed several academic language courses and content courses to have closer look at how teachers think in each type of class which thinking processes are involved in their teaching. The results show language teachers' perceptions differ from how content subject teachers perceive in terms of the process skills involved in disciplinary learning. Table 2.3 (p.85) summarises Mohan's reviews on the thinking processes involved in two different types of content-embedded course. Part A lists some studies conducted to investigate what thinking processes are involved in reviewed content-embedded language courses. Part B consists of thinking processes reported in two subject-matter courses, science and social studies. From the figure, some commonalties can be found within each part of the reviews. Both in Part A and Part B, all courses involved some sort of organizing skills. However, the foci are different. The language courses give emphasis to teaching of language use in presenting thinking processes whereas content courses focus on developing the actual thinking process involved in discipline learning and cognitive processes. In this study, the term 'cognitive processes' refers to an operation that affects mental contents; "the process of thinking" which involve information processing/storing and concept developing. In Mohan's words (1986): the skills and functions are based on the language teacher's knowledge of language and discourse, and reflect the language teacher's interests...However, while they reflect our aim of obtaining cross-content thinking skills and language, we cannot be

sure that lists are, in Herber's words, 'cognitive skills appropriate to all disciplines.'' (p.16-18).

Table 2.3 Mohan's Review on Thinking Processes in Content-embedded Language Courses and Subject-matter courses

Category	A: Language Academic Communication and Thinking				B. Content Thinking Processes in Content Courses	
Studied Approaches	Reading in the Content Areas Herber (1978)	English for Specific Purposes (ESP) Widdowson (1979)	ESP Bates & Dudley-Evans (1976)	Study Skills Catterson (1965)	Science American Association for the Advancement of Science (1970)	Social Studies Durkin (1969)
Processes Involved	1. Comparison/ contrast 2. Time order 3. Sample listing	1. Description 2. Definition 3. Classification 4. Hypotheses	1. Description: properties, shapes, location, and structure 2. Measurement: quantity, proportion, frequency, tendency and probability 3. Process: action in sequence, method, function/ability and cause/effect	1.Using graphic materials 2.Using book parts 3.Using sources 4.Organization perceived 5.Organization produced	1. Observing 2. Using space/time relationships 3. Classifying 4. Using numbers 5. Measuring 6. Communicating, predicting, inferring, controlling variables, interpreting data, formulating hypotheses, defining operationally, experimenting	1. Listing 2. Grouping and labelling 3. Inferring and generalizing

Adapted From Mohan (1986:17)

Frequent use of Mother Tongue

It is an often-identified problem of task-based teaching methods, which is commonly used in CBLI, that learners tend to make extensive use of their mother tongue (Carless & Gordon, 1997; Nikolov, 1999; and Pinter 1999). This is also frequently evident in subject-learning sessions in the present study, particularly when the learners were carrying out tasks in groups/pairs. Swain and Lapkin's (2000) recent research also shows that the learners used their mother tongues up to 25% of the time while completing tasks aimed at stimulating communication in the target language. In contrast, the learners only used their mother tongues 12% of the time while not working on tasks. Some of these research view this phenomenon not as negatively as they found more in-depth analysis disclosed that the code-switching served important cognitive and social functions, such as discussing carrying out the tasks (Nikolov, 1999; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Carless, 2004). Nevertheless, it is a fact that the use of tasks should be for stimulating communicative language use instead of completing the tasks themselves. In other words, the use of tasks shifts the learners' attention away from using the target language. The learners should be taught and encouraged to use communication strategies instead of simply going for the easiest solution when encountering communication problems.

Minimal use of Target Language in terms of Production

Swain's (1985) research in the early years of CBLI reported that learners in such programmes did not achieve such high proficiency levels as expected considering the extensive amount of time they were exposed to and engaged in the target language. She further explained that it could be due to the fact that these learners did not need to push themselves further to achieve higher accuracy as they could get by just using minimal target language. Seedhouse (1999) also noted a similar issue in the use of task-based language teaching, that certain types of tasks 'tend to constrain the kinds of linguistic forms

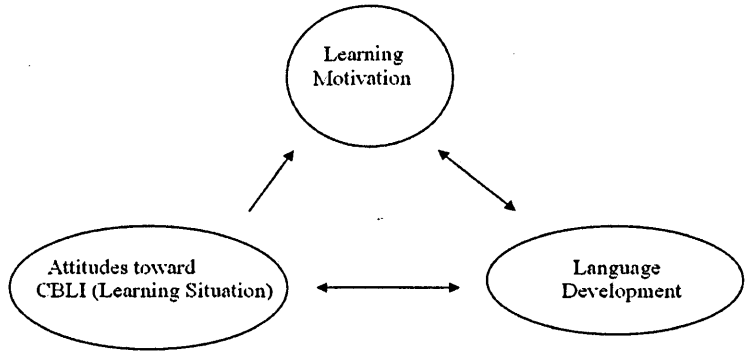
used in the learners' turns, and there is a general tendency to minimize linguistic forms' (p. 152). Likewise, the nature of CBLI is predominantly meaning-focused, especially in content-subject lessons. As a result, both teachers and learners tend to focus on content subject learning and treat linguistic forms as vehicles for carrying messages rather than the ultimate learning agenda.

2.5 Summary of the Theoretical Foundation of the Current Study

As noted in section 2.1, language learners' achievement is influenced by input (instruction), language aptitude, and motivation (Gardner, 2000b). Thus learners' motivation can be easily shaped by motivation which consists of their attitudes toward the learning situation and the support they get from their teachers, parents, and peers. This is particularly the case for EFL young learners. Language learners' motivation and attitudes may change when they get older (Moon, 2000). Children at the age of ten might understand and see the needs of learning English. However younger pupils' attitudes and motivation tend to be influenced mainly by parents' views (their parents think learning English is important), affection for their teachers and peers (they like their English teacher and classmates), and language lessons (fun activities in the lessons).

Thus, the current study focuses on investigating how CBLI, as a learning situation, impacts on EFL young learners' language attitudes, classroom anxiety and motivation. Figure 2.3 illustrates relationships amongst the investigated foci in the current study. In the following chapter, I will outline the design of this study and discuss research instruments implemented.

Figure 2.3 Relations amongst Learners' Attitudes toward Learning Situation, Language Development and Learning Motivation



Chapter 3 Methodology & Research Design

This chapter outlines the structure of the methodology and research design employed in the present study. It consists of eight sub-sections. Section 3.1 states the purpose of this study and research questions. Section 3.2 provides a clear picture of the context this research was conducted and describes its participants. Section 3.3 explains the designs of the research instruments implemented in the current study. Section 3.4 illustrates how the instruments were piloted in this study and the results of the piloting. Section 3.5 outlines the procedure of the research process and method of data analysis. Section 3.6 discusses ethical issues involved in the current study. Section 3.7 acknowledges the methodological imitations of the current study. Section 3.8 gives a brief summary of the methodology and research design of this research.

The purpose of the research design was aimed at finding out how Content-based language instruction (CBLI) as a language curriculum and teaching approach impacted on Taiwanese EFL young learners' language development language attitudes, motivation and classroom anxiety. The emphasis was on investigating if and how the selected subjects' language attitudes, motivation, and classroom anxiety along with their language development changed after undergoing a six-week CBLI programme.

3.1 Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

This study investigated how CBLI influences Taiwanese EFL young learners' language attitudes, motivation and classroom anxiety. Attention was directed towards one specific main question and 4 sub-questions (Sub-Q), as they apply to variables considered to be important in the socio-educational model of SLA.

What is the impact of CBLI on EFL young learners in terms of their language development motivation, attitudes, and anxiety towards English language learning, and motivation toward content subjects learning?

Sub-Q 1: Does CBLI help both lower-level and higher-level proficiency learners improve their language development? This question is answered by comparing the results from pre- and post-course Rapid Profiling and self-reported assessments. Data gathered from classroom observation also provided the learners' actual speech samples in content and language lessons to present how the subjects performed in real classroom situations.

Sub-Q 2: Were learners, both with higher and lower levels of achievement, better motivated towards English language learning and content subjects learning in primary schools after undergoing the CBLI course? This sub-question is answered by comparing results of pre- and post-course questionnaires and teachers' interviews.

Sub-Q 3: Does CBLI have a positive or negative impact on the learners' attitude towards a) English language learning; and b) content subjects learning in primary schools after receiving the CBLI course? This sub-question is answered by comparing results of pre- and post-course questionnaires.

Sub-Q 4: Does CBLI help reduce anxiety for learners with a lower level of language development towards English language learning? Is the level of language anxiety reduction the same as for learners with higher levels of language development?

The main question is answered by summarizing findings from the sub-questions 1- 4.

3.2 Context and Participants

The current research is a case study which included largely quantitative investigation of the subjects' language development and learning motivation. The study was supplemented with some qualitative data which was gathered from semi-structured teacher's interviews and classroom observation of a group of first year primary students in a Taiwanese private primary school receiving a 6-week intensive Content-based language instruction course (CBLI) for the first time. The current research could be classified as a quantitative study which also made use of small amount of qualitative data to complement the quantitative side. The teacher's account of the subjects' learning motivation and language development was aimed at validating the subjects' self-report on their learning motivation. The classroom transcript was used to give examples of how exactly the target language was used in the recorded lessons. The quantitative data in the current study, namely learning motivation questionnaire, reading and writing self-assessment, classroom observation and language proficiency tests (for details please see later section 3.3 Research Instruments, p.99), could only provide a clear picture of how the teacher's and learners' verbal interaction patterns changed statistically due to the focus changes in different classes and how the subjects' learning motivation changed. It could not illustrate whether the learners' content knowledge was embedded in the target language they used, nor could it present any essence of the classroom atmosphere. The qualitative data allowed a more detailed investigation and explanation of the real target language use in the classroom.

A case study is 'an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident' (Yin, 2002:13). It is an 'in-depth study of instances of a

phenomenon in its natural context and from the perspective of the participants involved in the phenomenon' (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996:545).

The case study method was adopted in the current study due to the fact that there were several variables, which could not be separated from the context, such as instruction hours, resources available, and teaching staff involved. These variables had a potential impact on language young learners' achievement and learning motivation as reviewed in last chapter. Hence, they had to be taken into account in the current study context.

As noted in Chapter 1, CBLI has been implemented in the private language sectors in Taiwan, which includes both Busibans and private primary schools. The researched class was in one of the 51 registered private schools for compulsory education which includes primary and junior high school education and is equivalent to primary and secondary schooling in the United Kingdom or Grades 1 to 9 in the United States. MOE (2007) statistics show that there were 2834 classes in these private schools. There were 120,124 students privately educated during the academic year 2006. The CBLI programme research was held by this school during the summer break in 2006.

3.2.1 Setting

To provide a clear general view of the context in which this study took place, this subsection briefly describes the participating school and its overall course structure. The participating school is a private primary and junior high school located in Taichung in central Taiwan. It provides English language courses for different purposes for learners aged from 6 to 12 and mainly targets intensive language courses using CBLI. The school also offers consultancy to both public and private junior high schools, and high schools, on conducting summer and winter CBLI programmes. In addition, this school also runs after-school programmes which were registered as private Busibans (cf. 1.1.3 Culture of Supplementary Learning & National Statistics, p.13).

The school provides a bilingual curriculum, which contains all the subjects required and follows the national curriculum guidelines set out by the MOE. On top of the required subjects, CBLI programmes are in use in this school during regular term time, including Reading, Art, Science, Culture study and language classes, which in total take up about 6 to 8 hours a week.

In schools offering CBLI English courses, there are usually more students wishing to enrol than spaces available. In this school, students are selected on the basis of English proficiency levels in the years proceeding the year of the CBLI English course.

3.2.2 The Participants

The teachers

Each class in this school is assigned two teachers; one is an English native speaker with a recognized ESL/EFL teaching certificate and the other is Chinese and English bilingual with either an ESL/EFL teaching certificate recognized by the MOE or a primary teaching certificate approved by the MOE.

The English native speaking teacher in this class is a Canadian and has worked full-time in Taiwan as an English language teacher in private bilingual primary schools for four years and was moving into her fifth year. The English native speaker was responsible for teaching all subjects to be taught in English, which included Reading, Science, Maths, Writing, Computer Assisted Language Learning and Library Circle Time.

The English and Chinese bilingual homeroom teacher in this class is a Taiwanese native and has worked in this school for six years. Her responsibility mainly focuses on administrative affairs and she also teaches phonics and spelling classes.

The class

The class studied was one of the five classes in grade one in this summer programme. The class consisted of twenty-five students, fourteen males and eleven females who were aged from six to seven and are from middle-class families. Only twenty three of the students participated in this study. The other two were not included in the research analysis due to their low attendance. In addition, there were only 22 of the students who took the pre-course language assessments carried out in this study as there was one pupil absent on the day of assessments. Due to the absence of the pupil's pre-course test, the result of her post-course assessment was not included in the final analysis.

The participants were from very similar backgrounds in terms of education and experience in language learning. Most of these twenty three students attended the same private kindergarten that runs ESL programmes before they started this summer programme. This was the main reason they were allocated in the same class. In that kindergarten they received intensive English language instruction, from both native and non-native speakers of English, via set dialogues, story telling, task-based activities and songs and games for an average of four hours a week on top of their early childhood education curriculum for around two years. The foci in language classes were mainly on listening, speaking, and vocabulary. The students were quite proficient in day-to-day survival English. In addition, most of these students had developed basic reading and writing abilities in the target language prior to entering the summer programme. The learners were not expected to be able to read or write in their first language as kindergarten is not part of compulsory education under Taiwanese National Curriculum Guidelines.

3.2.3 The Programme studied

The summer programme adopted a CBLI curriculum which the researcher developed when working as the head of academic affairs in the school Busiban division in 2003. In this summer programme young learners received five half-days of instruction in English per week for six weeks. The programme included both content subjects, such as Mathematics and Science, and language classes which included phonics, reading, and vocabulary.

The summer programme was developed by the school itself in order to help new students to bridge the change from kindergarten to forthcoming bilingual primary schooling by including both content-based subjects, such as Science, Maths and Social Studies as well as ESL lessons, such as reading, phonics, and writing in the curriculum. The materials and textbooks were ready-made by the Houghton Mifflin Company from the United States and were adapted to better suit the learners' social context.

The summer programme consisted of eight sessions of reading, four sessions of content related subjects, namely Maths, Science, language classes and Social Studies, and one session of library story time on a weekly basis. The scope and sequence of the summer programme is summarised in Appendix 2 (p.288). The programme covered two of five volumes of grade one reading textbooks and the rest were to be taught during regular term time. As to the content related subjects, the class incorporated a textbook called Summer Smarts (Appendix 1 Summer Smart Table of Content, p.266).

Reading classes focused on developing the subjects' literacy skills such as reading strategies and reading comprehension. The learners were expected to be able to retell the stories and recognize vocabulary taught from the stories in texts other than the course books after the sessions. During the summer programme, the learners studied two to three reading stories each week. Each story contained approximately one hundred to one

hundred and fifty words and lasted for two to three sessions. The teacher usually started from directing the learners to the illustrations in the story and invited them to talk about what they thought about the pictures. Then the teacher would provide modelling by reading the stories out loud after having the students try to sound out the words in the story. The stories were wrapped up with games for comprehension checks or open discussion for learners to share their similar experience in relation to the contexts in the reading stories.

The subjects' reading and writing abilities were unknown as they were only assessed by the use of RWSA. As noted in section 3.7.4 Language Assessments (p.156) the result of RWSA can not be used as a reliable indicator for the subjects' actual reading and writing abilities. Nevertheless, all the subjects demonstrated their reading competency during the pre- and post-curse language test. At the pre-test, most of the learners could read most items listed in Reading and Writing Self-Assessment (RWSA, see Appendix 3 Reading and Writing Self-Assessment, p.293). They could read instructions listed on all the tasks (see Appendix 9-12) and plus all items in the RWSA (Appendix 3) without the help of an adult.

Apart from language skills taught in reading classes, there was also a one-hour session on phonics and spelling on weekly basis. This session was designed mainly for developing the learners' sight word bank. A list of words was given on a weekly basis. The words practised were derived from the stories they were studying in Reading class for that week.

The students also took part in one session of writing class every week. Two different types of writing class, namely creative writing and writing class, were taught in the six-week CBLI programme. Writing class aimed at teaching rules in the English writing system, such as letter formation, and use of punctuations (see Appendix 2 Summer Programme Scope & Sequence, p.288). Creative writing, in this programme, refers to writing classes focused on encouraging learners to express their thoughts freely. In other words, writing class focused on learners' writing accuracy, and creative writing aimed at developing writing fluency. The writing class was aimed at introducing the English writing

system. On top of the listed skills in Appendix 2 Summer Programme Scope & Sequence, the teacher also used self-made materials for learners to practise creative writing. When doing creative writing, the learners were required to write at least 3 to 5 sentences. Topics chosen in the creative writing activities were relevant to the content in their reading textbooks or Science class. While doing such activities, the learners were encouraged to use their imagination and express their ideas through writing and drawing. When the tasks were completed, the teacher would let each student present their work in the class.

In addition, there were also subjects taught in Chinese for an equal length of time as subjects taught in English. The subjects included Chinese Pronunciation for five sessions, Maths for two sessions, PE for three sessions, Science Games for one session, Life Skills for one session and Art & Craft for one session. Although the subjects overlapped with those taught in English, the content was not repeated.

The role of content teaching in this summer programme was to provide an interface for teachers to teach academic skills needed in specific subject-matter as well as to expose learners to authentic input of academic English. From the researcher's perspective, the content teaching was viewed as an intervening element in order to investigate if the use of CBLI plays any vital roles in Taiwanese EFL young summer programme learners' motivation, language attitude and classroom anxiety.

Communicative orientations are different due to the nature of language classes and content classes (Fröhlich, Spada, & Allen, 1985; Spada & Fröhlich, 1995). Teacher and learners tend to use more authentic language, both when initiating and responding in a content class. Hence, there should be frequency differences between learners' speech types in terms of production in language and content classes. By the same token, differences could be found in teachers' speech types in these two types of classes. In order to validate the programme, an observation scheme was developed and is presented in a later section.

3.3 Research Instruments

All instruments employed in the present study are discussed in this section. In the study a questionnaire and interview are used to measure the subjects' motivation, attitude and classroom anxiety changes.

This research implemented multiple methods of data collection to answer the research questions. The metaphor 'triangulation' has been used to describe the inspection of different kinds of data, methods, and a variety of research tools (Van Lier, 1988) to further validate the collected data . This technique was adapted in this study to map out a fuller picture of the behaviours of the studied subjects. Further, the use of triangulation also aimed at providing a means of validating data collected in the present study. Brown and Rodgers (2002) note that one can maximize the possibility of getting credible findings by cross-validating findings from examining data from at least two points of views

Data triangulation was employed in this study in terms of the use of different methods of data collection, namely observation, teacher's interview, and questionnaire on motivation change, learners' self-assessment on reading and writing skills as well as to provide an indicator of the subjects' self-confidence on the target language use and Rapid Profile on determining learners' linguistic developmental stages. These instruments are discussed in detail in below.

3.3.1Measuring Motivation, Attitude, and Classroom Anxiety Change

Two instruments, in the form of questionnaires and interviews, were implemented to measure each subject's motivation, attitude and classroom anxiety change in the present study. Section 3.3.1.1 outlines the design and adaptation of the questionnaire whereas Section 3.3.1.2 discusses the use of interviews in this study.

3.3.1.1 Adopted Attitude Motivation Test Battery

In order to measure learners' language learning motivation, attitude, and anxiety change after the 6-week CBLI programme, a questionnaire was developed based on Gardner's (1985) Attitude Motivation Test Battery (see Attitude Motivation Test Battery in p.33 for review).

The use of a questionnaire was favoured in the present study as it puts less pressure on the subjects for an immediate response than interviews usually do. Further, it ensures respondent anonymity and is free from interviewer's bias (Gillham, 2000). Such qualities of questionnaire use were particularly important in the present study as it involves young children who could be easily influenced by adults/teachers/authority. In order to ensure the subjects' responses to the questions were free from external factors noted above, the use of a questionnaire was chosen over interviews.

A set of standard criteria suggested by Dörnyei (2003) for the development of valid and reliable questionnaires was closely followed during the stage of instrument development. Instrument development in the present study started by examining the relevant literature on motivation studies (see section 2.12.1 Learning Motivation in SLA in

p.26) and self-assessment (see section 3.3.3.2 Reading and Writing Self-Assessments and 3.3.3.3 Scoring method of Assessments in the Present Study from p.126) as reviewed in later sections. The reviewed literature provided theoretical validation for item construction in a set of questionnaires targeted to investigate learning motivation and reading and writing abilities. In this section, the design of the learning motivation questionnaire is discussed in detail, and the use of reading and writing self-assessment will be presented in a later section.

Gardner's (1985) widely implemented AMTB was examined. AMTB was an empirically based construct and specific to Gardner's interest in the interrelationship of the Anglophone and Francophone communities in Canada. Hence, many items were not applicable and needed to be adapted or eliminated for the construct set out in the present study. AMTB was examined in this research for 1) relevant test items and 2) questionnaire format. Clément et al. (1994) have re-confirmed the validity of Gardner's AMTB which was adapted as a fundamental framework of the Learning Motivation Questionnaire (LMQ) in the present study. His original AMTB contains 129 items and investigates teenage learners' language attitude, intergrativeness, learning motivation, and classroom anxiety towards Canadian French. However, considering how short a concentration span young language learners normally have, it was very unlikely that they could finish such a long questionnaire. Dörnyei (2003) suggests that a good questionnaire should not be longer than 4 pages or take up more than 30 minutes to complete for the target respondents. Hence, the questionnaire used in this research, the Learning Motivation Questionnaire (please find the complete questionnaire in Appendix 4 Learning Motivation Questionnaire, p.284), was reduced to 43 items in Likert form and, where necessary, language use was simplified to better suit the target respondents in the current study who were at the age of six. This format of questionnaire was chosen because the ultimate purpose of the instrument was to track how the subjects' motivation attributes changed after completing the CBLI

programme. Furthermore, the statements were also specifically worded into the subject's context, learning English as a foreign language. A comparison table of Gardner's (1985) AMTB and the adapted one in the current study is shown below in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Comparison of Gardner's AMTB and LMQ

	Gardner's (1985) AMTB		LMQ
Forms	1. Likert Scale 2. Multiple choice 3. Semantic differential format		Likert scale
Numbers of Measures and test items for each measure	Likert Scale	1. Attitudes toward French Canadians: 10 items 2. Interest in Foreign Languages: 10 items 3. Attitudes toward European French People: 10 items 4. Attitudes toward Learning French: 5 items each for positive-worded and negative-worded statements 5. Integrative Orientation: 4 items 6. Instrumental Orientation: 4 items 7. French Class Anxiety: 5 items 8. Parental Encouragement: 10 items	1. Attitudes toward English Language: 5 items each for positive-worded and negative-worded statements 2. Interest in Foreign Languages: 6 positive-worded items 3. English Class anxiety: 7 items 4. Parental Encouragement: 6 items 5. Motivation (Orientation): 10 items 6. Interests in other school subject learning: 4 items
	Multiple Choice	1.Motivational Intensity: 10 items 2.Desire to Learn French: 10 items 3.Orientation Index: 1 item	
	Semantic differential format	1. French Teacher-Evaluation: 10 items 2.French Teacher-Rapport: 5 items 3.French Teacher-Competence: 5 items 4.French Teacher-Inspiration: 5 items 5.French Course-Evaluation: 10 items 6.French Course –Difficult: 5 items 7.French Course-Utility: 5 items 8.French Course-Interest: 5 items	
Total Test Items	129		43
Composite Indices	1. Intergrativeness 2. Motivation 3. Attitudes toward the Learning Situation 4. Attitude/Motivation Index		1. Motivation Orientation 2. Attitude toward English Langauge 3. Interests in Foreign Languages 4. Parental Encouragement 5. Classroom Anxiety 6. Interests in School subject learning

The LMQ was used to investigate young foreign/second language learners' target language learning motivation, attitude, and classroom anxiety and preferences for learning other subjects: Art, Social Studies, Maths and Science, in primary education. Gardner (1985) and Dörnyei (2003) suggest that for a tested attribute to be valid and reliable, it is crucial to take all factors relevant to that attribute into account. Further, due to the simplicity of a close-end questionnaire, it does not allow respondents to express their opinions in full. Hence, implementing multi-items where possible can compensate for such drawbacks of questionnaires when dealing with complex issues such as motivation traits. Multi-items refer to the use of more than one item to test the same traits or variables to be investigated, in this study, motivational traits. Use of multi-items is only effective when 'the items work together in a homogeneous manner, that is, they measure the same target area' (Dörnyei, 2003:111). In other words, where possible each motivation attribute should be tested by analysing responses to multi-items instead of a single item. Hence, the design of LMQ in this study contained 7 categories with 43 items in total. All categories contained multi-items except the category for interest in other subjects learning in primary schooling, namely Maths, Science, Art and Social Science.

The categories are:

1) negative-worded interest/enjoyment in foreign language and content subject learning, five items,
2) positive-worded interest/enjoyment in foreign language and content subject learning, five items,
3) attitudes toward learning English, six items,
4) English class anxiety, seven items,
5) parental encouragement, six items,
6) motivations for learning English, ten items and
7) interest in learning other subjects, four items, one item for each subject.

The items were presented in a random order during the actual data collecting period, and for the subjects in this study, instructions and each item were typically followed by the scale as indicated below.

Instructions and example:

You will be asked some questions regarding your views on learning English. Following are a number of statements with which some people agree and others disagree. There are no right or wrong answers since many people have different opinions. I would like you to indicate your opinion about each statement by colouring the score you would give for them, smelly () = 1 strongly disagree/never, Smiley () = 5 strongly agree/always.

For example:

Statement	 5 strongly agree  **1** strongly disagree				
1. I think orange juice is very tasty.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I think watching TV is very boring.	1	2	3	4	5

The subjects were not expected to be able to read the LMQ independently in either Chinese or English as they would not receive formal instruction on reading and writing Chinese until the next semester. Hence, the questionnaire was conducted in a structured interview style in the subjects' first language, Chinese. The subjects were required to fill in the LMQ on two occasions, before and after the 6-week CBLI input sessions with the purpose of measuring learners' language learning motivation, attitude, and anxiety change.

In addition, the LMQ was administered in a structured-interview format as the learners were not able to read the LMQ by themselves. Structured interviews, sometimes referred to as standardized interviews, is more often used in quantitative research. In this type of interview, researchers or interviewers have a set of interview schedule and ask each

interviewee exactly the same questions in terms of wording and order. On one hand, structured interviews are in the advantage of providing a very systematic data, which yield out information in a standard form. On the other hand, it also limit genre and depth of data elicited. Due to the very little flexibility in this type of interview, Bryman (2001) considers it as a more quantitative method as it is 'to maximize the reliability and validity of measurement' and 'supposed to generate answers that can be coded and processed quickly' (p. 313).

During the structure interviews, the subjects were grouped up into four randomly. Each subject had their own desks and their answers could only be seen by the individual. Then the researcher, as the interviewer, standing in the middle of the four desks, read out each statement and explained to the subjects. After hearing each statement, the subject then coloured their preferred scores on the questionnaire. The subjects were free to ask any questions at any point of the interviews if they found anything unclear. When observing the group of four finished answering a statement, the interviewer moved on to the next test item.

Validity of LMQ

The validity of LMQ was checked by surveying literature in EFL learners' motivational studies. According to the literature review (Gardner, 1985, 2000; Dörnyei,1998, 2003; Clément et al., 1994; Macintyre & Gardner, 1991; MacIntyre et al., 1997, Masgot et al., 2001; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003) among EFL learners' motivational factors in exploring students' motivation, language attitude, positive feelings, negative feelings, self-confidence, classroom anxiety, motivations toward the target language learning and parental encouragements do contribute to learners' motivation. The items tested in LMQ in the current study were adapted from previous studies which have been validated in above mentioned studies by factor analysis.

The initial test items in LMQ were subject to expert judgement for content validity and clarity (see 3.4.4 Expert Judgment, p.136) as suggested by Dörnyei (2003). The judges suggested eliminating some redundant and irrelevant items from the initial list of LMQ and using more informal spoken language instead of formal written forms. After clarifying with the judges that their view of redundant items were for the purpose of testing with multiple items in order to increase reliability, we agreed to retain those items. I also re-phrased some items in order to make them more comprehensible for six-year old subjects in the current study. Some items were merged and simplified in wording. For illustration, in Gardner's original AMTB Interests in Foreign Langauge item 4: 'I want to read the literature of a foreign language in the original language rather than a translation' and item 5: 'I often wish I could read newspapers and magazines in another language' were merged and simplified as 'I often wish I could read story books in another language' in the current study. Moreover, as noted above the LMQ was administered in a structured-interview format as the learners were not able to read the LMQ by themselves. The learners were also encouraged to ask any questions at any point of the interviews if they found anything unclear.

Reliability of LMQ

LMQ was a measurement instrument designed to gauge the subjects' psychometric properties. According to Dörnyei (2003), questionnaires are measurement instruments, and therefore should all possess adequate reliability and validity before data obtained are analyzed. Apart from getting a fuller picture of respondents' opinions, as noted above, the use of multi-item scales can increase reliability of the tested attributes. A questionnaire can be tested if it is reliable by assuring it has appropriate internal consistency. Internal consistency refers to 'the homogeneity of the items making up the various multi-item scales within the questionnaire' (ibid: 110). Two conditions must be satisfied to claim a

questionnaire has internal consistency, 1) multi-item scales, and 2) each item should correlate with other items on the scale. Nevertheless, internal consistency only tests one aspect of the overall reliability of a questionnaire (ibid). However, Nunnally (1975) points out that reliability approximated by internal consistency is usually very close to reliability estimation made from other sources.

Dörnyei (2003) recommends the use of the Cronbach Alpha coefficient for testing internal consistency reliability. This figure ranges between zero and one. Dörnyei (ibid) adds that due to the complexity of second language research, lower Cronbach Alpha coefficients are expected; they are acceptable in excess of 0.60 and are considered fairly good when exceeding 0.70. Table 3.2 (p. 108) reveals internal consistency test results of LMQ in the present study based on real data. All Cronbach Alpha figures are for multi-item attributes in excess of 0.60, except the attribute of classroom anxiety which was 0.599 and extremely close to 0.60. When examining the pre- and post-course LMQ as a whole, pre-course LMQ Cronbach Alpha was 0.657 whereas post-course Cronbach Alpha was 0.754. These results indicate that LMQ had acceptable internal consistency, therefore was reliable.

Table 3.2 Internal Consistency Reliability Test Result of LMQ

Attributes with multiple items	Item Number	Cronbach Alpha value based on real data
Language attitude	6	0.704
Positive-Worded Statements	5	0.771
Negative-Worded Statements	5	0.631
Classroom Anxiety	7	0.599
Parent Support	6	0.665
Motivations for English Learning	10	0.624
Interests in Other Subject Learning	4	N/A, Single Items Only
Cronbach Alpha for the 7 Attributes		
Pre-course LMQ	43	0.657
Post-course LMQ	43	0.754

3.3.1.2 Teacher Participant's Interview

A second method was used to collect data on learners' motivation change, with the teacher participant interview to provide a means to complement the massive quantitative data generated from the use of LMQ and RP. The teacher participant's perceptions of the subjects' learning motivation changes and language development after receiving the 6-week summer programme were taken into account to compare with quantitative data collected from LMQ as triangulation. The teacher's narrative description of content-lesson activities during the interviews also made the learners' motivation change and language development vivid. Although the use of qualitative data was minimal, it presented a clear picture

In preparing a guide for the semi-structured interview, Bryman (2001) suggests

examining research questions in order to find out what questions need to be asked to ascertain the answers for the research questions. With the aim of getting an appreciation of what the teacher identified as significant and important in relation to each stated research question, teacher's in-course and post-course interview guides were prepared (see Appendix 5 and Appendix 6). The guides included lists of questions on how the teacher perceives that her students' learning development, motivation, and language attitude changed from her observations throughout the 6-week input sessions.

Interview techniques have been extensively reviewed in the field of qualitative research in social work (Bloor, 1997; and Oka, 2000 etc.), as it is 'probably the most widely employed method in qualitative research' (Bryman, 2001:312). It has been described as 'without a doubt, the most utilized data collection method in qualitative research studies' (Rogers & Bouey, 1996:52). Many authors classify qualitative interviews into three types: structured, semi-structured, and unstructured interviews. The current study implemented pre- and post-course semi-structured interviews, also called guided interviews, as less inflexible than structured interviews and in a format that the researcher prepares interview guides that consist of a set of questions. Nevertheless, interviewers still have a set of scheduled questions to follow when conducting semi-structured interviews. This type of interview is widely used in qualitative research (Flick, 1998).

Each type of interview has its own advantages and disadvantages. Type of interviews to be adapted in the research is determined by various factors, such as research contexts and purposes of using interviews. A researcher might favour an unstructured interview when he/she is concerned of maximising authentic access to the members' worldviews of a social setting or of people sharing common attributes. However, when a researcher has begun an investigation and has a very clear focus, it is more likely a structured or semi-

structured interview will be adapted so that the researcher can focus on addressing specific issues (Bryman, 2001; Oka, 2000).

The interviews were conducted in an informal and semi-structured fashion at a pre-course interview in week 2 and post-course interview in week 6. The pre- and post-course scheduled interview questions were kept as similar as possible (please see Appendix 5 Pre-course Teacher Participant Interview Schedule and Appendix 6 Post-course Teacher Participant Interview Schedule) to make comparing data sets easier in later analysis. In addition, the interview schedules also avoided questions on comparing pre- and post-course learners' performances and motivation changes to prevent getting politically correct answers from the teacher. Instead, the teacher was asked to compare the subjects' participation, responses and performances in different classes.

3.3.2 Observation

The current research implemented observation to gather qualitative data in order to complement the massive use of quantitative data and to provide a means of checking validity of the six-week CBLI summer programme. Observation is a very common tool for data collection in educational studies. Malderez (2003:179) describes that it 'can help us make sense of educational situations, gauge the effectiveness of educational practices, and plan attempts for improvements'. The fundamental virtue of observation is that it facilitates us to document participants accounting to each other in an authentic setting (Dingwall, 1997) as he describes, 'where interviewers construct data, observers find it' (ibid, 60).

McCall (1984) strongly endorses that in comparison to interviews and questionnaires, structured observation 'provides (a) more reliable information about events; (b) greater precision regarding their timing, duration, and frequency; (c) greater accuracy in the time

ordering of variables, and (d) more accurate and economical reconstructions of large-scale social episodes' (p. 277). However, there are also some issues about sampling, reliability and validity that need to be reconsidered (Bryman, 2001).

Structured observation has largely only been used in certain research areas such as school teachers and pupils and interaction between them due to its drawbacks. Bryman (ibid) comments that researchers often encounter concerns of inter-observer consistency, which is also known as inter-rater reliability. Another consideration to reliability is the degree of consistency of 'the application of the observation schedule over time' (ibid, 169). It is very unlikely to achieve reliability due to effects such as observer fatigue and lapses in attention, especially in a real-time observation situation.

Studies of second language classrooms have arisen due to the influence from research into other disciplines, such as education, sociology, and applied linguistics (Chaudron, 1988). While studies of the second language classroom might have different foci, they are nonetheless mostly involved with classroom processes. Hence, classroom observation has been frequently implemented. In order to investigate what happens in the classroom, many instruments have been introduced since then to facilitate observation or for later analysis.

The purpose of observation in this study was to investigate changes in the ratio of types of teacher talk and student talk in two types of language classes: content-oriented classes, such as Maths and Science, and language classes such as phonics and spelling in order to gather evidence of CBLI use in the programme studied. The use of observation helped to better understand the actual atmospheres in content-subjects and language uses differed and how the interaction between the teacher and the learners changed. It is important to state the purpose of observation prior to actual conduct, since different purposes of observation will impact on the observer's focus as well as his or her choice of instruments (Malderez, 2003). Instruments implemented in the current study for facilitating observation will be discussed in later section 3.3.2.2 Facilitating observation

(p.113). Further, as the researcher of the current study, I took the roles of an unobtrusive observer and an interviewer throughout the data collection period (see later session 3.5 Research Process & Data Collection, p.139).

CBLI is felt to promote more authentic target language use than regular language classes. Research results in Fröhlich, Spada, and Allen's (1985) study showed that the nature of interaction and language production in immersion, extended immersion and core versus ESL classes are programmatically different in communicative orientation. In other words, in a proper CBLI class, when compared with regular classes, the ratio of meaning-focused target language use, which usually carries unpredicted information, is significantly higher than classes emphasizing form-focused language use. Hence, validation of the CBLI use in the studied programme could be made by comparing the observation tallies from content-input sessions and language input sessions.

3.3.2.1 Time Sampling

Four classes, in week 2 (pre-course) and week 6 (post-course) were observed and video recorded in order to find out more about what exactly happens in the classroom. Both content-subject classes and language classes were included in this procedure. Language input sessions were scheduled on Monday, first class in the morning, and content-subject sessions are scheduled on Tuesday, first class in the morning. The pre-course video recordings did not take place until the second week of the programme. The teacher, and particularly the subjects, needed time to settle in and get to know each other. The reason the post-course video recordings did not wait until the last 2 days of the summer programme, is because at the very final stage of the programme the learners were more likely to get absent-minded as they might be over-excited about the following 2-week break.

3.3.2.2 Facilitating observation

Two instruments were implemented to better facilitate observation, video taping and an observation scheme. Justifications of the use of the instruments are noted in detail in this section.

Video Taping

Video taping was used as a replacement for an observer in the classroom to eliminate/reduce observers' influence on the class and the pupils in the current study. Video taping is frequently-used technology in educational research. Burns (1999) comments that video recording captures naturalistic interactions and literal utterances in detail. Moreover, it is a valuable resource of accurate information on patterns of interactions, which might be easily neglected during the real-time classroom observation process. Video recording 'allows researchers to capture the nature of the physical setting, the identity of participants in interactions, and many aspects of nonverbal communication such as gestures, bows, and eye contact' (Johnson, 1992:86). Nonetheless, this technique has a main drawback. It might make some participants over conscious about what they say and how they behave, which Webb et al. (1966:13) has described as a 'reactive measurement effect'.

In order to tackle the aforementioned drawback of observation (cf. 3.3.2 Observation, p110), although the teacher and students knew they were to be video recorded in class, they were not informed in which exact classes it was to take place. The lessons were recorded as unobtrusively as possible. In the recorded sessions, the camcorder was set up in a hidden spot before the classes started so that the learners would have no knowledge of its existence.

Observation Scheme

The use of observation schemes in second or foreign language classrooms started soaring from the 1980's, and is a by-product of communicative language teaching (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995). Various types of observation schemes are developed to assist data collection for second language classroom studies mainly focusing on classroom interactions and describing teachers'/learners' behaviour in the classroom (Long, 1980) These coding schemes which are developed specifically for second language classrooms are based on a Discourse Analysis paradigm (Seedhouse, 2004) and usually consist of pre-described-categories lists which are known as 'category systems' (Long, 1980). They are often in the form of tallies or numbers, and sometimes signs. Most schemes allow observers to do multiple coding for a single behaviour, such as Ullmann and Geva's 'The Target Language Observation Scheme' in 1983, and 'Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme' (COLT) of Allen et al's (Allen, Fröhlich, & Spada, 1984). Although these schemes are designed to be used in 'real-time coding, they are more feasible to use with recordings. Due to the different purposes, these schemes vary in numbers and types of categories, recording procedures used, feasibility of real-time coding, and foci (Long, 1980; Chaudron, 1988).

COLT was developed in an attempt to describe activities and processes in a communicative language classroom and aim in order to examine how classroom processes and activities relate to learners' production and learning outcome (Allen, Fröhlich, & Spada, 1984; Spada & Fröhlich, 1995). COLT consists of two parts. Part A is designed for real-time coding and comprised of author-originated categories such as episodes of classroom activity, participant organisation, content, student modality and material resources, whereas Part B is designed to be used with video or audio recording and 'analyses the communicative features of verbal exchanges between teachers and students and/or students and students as they occur within each episode' (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995: 20). COLT has

been validated by its application in a large scale study which involved the French immersion programme, a traditional French language class, and ESL classes. The results unveiled that programmes varied in frequency of communicative categories. As the studied programmes were designed to differ in communicative orientation, thus when the independent ranking varied for each programme, the observation scheme is validated (Fröhlich, Spada, & Allen, 1985).

In the observed sessions, an observation scheme which was adapted from the COLT observation scheme (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995) was used to describe the instructional practices and procedures. The original COLT design enables observers to document different dimensions of content-based language classroom interaction. It allows multiple-coding, which increases 'possibility in the instrument to assign more than one code to a given behavioural event. As soon as multiple codes are allowed, the instrument obviously has incorporated multiple dimensions of analysis' (Chaudron, 1988:20).

The adopted observation scheme includes two parts. Part A (see Appendix 7 Adapted Observation Scheme - A, p.303) was used to have a better look at the classroom procedure as a whole, while Part B (see Appendix 8 Adapted Observation Scheme-B, p. 304) was aimed at investigating and cross-examining the ratio change of process-product between the beginning and the end of the programme in content-oriented and linguistic-oriented classes, as well as the frequencies of teacher's utterances and students' utterances. The data was analysed by calculating the learners' and teacher's predicted and unpredicted speech ratio to determine how often 'natural language' is used in each class. The term 'natural language' refers to meaning-focused instead of form-focused utterances.

The adapted COLT scheme, both Part A and Part B, was carried out from the class video tapes, because it was difficult to check back in a real-time situation. In addition, although the Part A of COLT was used in real-time coding in Spada and Fröhlich's (1995)

original design, the adapted Part A in the present study was carried out by using classroom video tapes so that the classes would remain unobstructed.

Categories in the Adapted COLT scheme

Only some parts of the Part A categories were used during the observation process because some of them are not considered relevant to the present study. For example, since all the pupils were very young and had very limited L2 ability, it was very unlikely they would exert any control over topics and materials. Thus, 'Content Control' and 'Materials' were not evaluated. In addition, in the original COLT, the category of 'Student Modality' includes 4 skills, however, in this study, only listening and speaking were included. Since the participants were relatively young and still could not read or write in their first language, 'reading' and 'writing' were not included and instead are replaced by a sub-category, 'other'. Furthermore, the category of 'Group work' was also eliminated given that it was in frequent use in the observed programme. Instead, the use of group work was recorded in the 'Note' column.

The adapted Part B in the observation scheme remained the same as the original one except that two sub-categories have been left out, 'ultra-minimal speech', 'Elaboration request' for both Teacher's and Students' verbal interaction and one main category, 'Form restriction' from 'Student verbal interaction' has also been eliminated. 'Elaborating request' has been combined into 'clarifying request' to avoid speculation of the teacher's intention. In a classroom situation, it is hard for an observer to determine if a teacher or a student request for more information over certain thing is aimed at asking for clarification or elaboration. 'Form restriction' was abolished because, in this programme, students were always encouraged to use all means of communication except their first language.

In addition, some of the sub-categories in Part B have been redefined to better suit the current situation. Definitions of categories in Part A remain the same as in the original

COLT scheme. Given that the participants were rather young and were still at beginners' level, the sub-categories of 'Sustained' and 'Minimal' in 'Sustained Speech' in both the teacher's and the student's 'Verbal Interaction' have been redefined. The sub-category of 'Sustained' indicates utterances that are formed with (a) complete sentence(s) and 'Minimal' refers to single word responses or incomplete sentences. As to L1 and L2 language use, the definition remains the same; however, the calculation has been changed, since L1 use was very rare in this class. In the original COLT, L1 and L2 use are accumulated minute by minute. In the adapted COLT, due to the minimal use of learners' L1, it was more practical just to count the occasions it was used. Extra notes about the topic and content of L1 use were also made. A comparison table of the original COLT and the adapted one is shown below in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Comparison of Part A in Original COLT vs. Adapted COLT

	Original COLT	**Adapted COLT**
Columns	1. Time 2. Activities & Episodes 3. Participant Organisation: Class, Group, and Individual 4. Content: management (procedure, discipline), language (form, function, discourse, socialising), other topics (narrow, broad) 5. Content Control: teacher's text, teacher & students' text, students' text 6. Student Modality: listening, speaking, reading and writing. 7. Materials: type (text: minimal, extended, audio visual), Source (L2 non-native speakers, L2 native speakers, L2 native speaker adapted, and student-made)	1. Time 2. Activities & Episodes 3. Participant Organisation: Class and Individual 4. Content: management (procedure, discipline), language (form, function, discourse, socialising), other topics (narrow, broad) 5. Student Modality: listening, speaking, and other 6. Notes
Total Items	**33**	**19**

3.3.3 Measuring learners' language development

The purpose to measuring learner's language development in this research was for evaluating subjects' progress on linguistic items throughout the course time, rather than determining their achievement and grasp of course content. Hence it was justified that the measuring instruments to be used in this study, Rapid Profile and self-report proficiency form, did not appear appropriate for testing the subjects' achievement during the course. In other words, assessing techniques used here were more for the purpose of summative assessment. Summative assessments are aimed at providing information about the test takers which measures how much they have learned from a course (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992). A summative assessment is usually graded or marked according to a scale; in this study, the developmental stages/sequence of English language learners underlies the employed language testing software, Rapid Profile (cf. 3.3.3.1 Rapid Profile). The subjects' developmental stages were tested at the beginning and the end of the summer programme by Rapid Profile. The pre- and post-course test results were then compared to determine how each participating subject improved throughout the summer programme.

Before going into details of measuring learners' language development here, it is important to draw a distinction between language assessment and testing. A test is a series of questions, or physical responses intended to determine knowledge, intelligence, or ability, which is 'just one technique or method of assessment' (Cameron, 2001:222), whereas assessment is a much broader concept than tests. It is concerned with pupils' learning or performance and 'should be viewed as an interactive process that engages both teacher and student in monitoring the student's performance' (Hancock, 1994: 2).

The characteristics of young language learners (YLL) and the special needs of those for the assessment of YLL's language ability are widely reviewed in the literature, such as McKay (2000), Rea-Dickins (2000), Cameron (2001), Pinter (2006), and Hasselgreen

(2005). In those reviews there is consensus that assessment for YLL should follow the following principles:

- Tasks should be appropriate to the age group, stimulating and preferably in the form of games and fun.
- Assessment should have variety of participants. Pupils', the parents', and the teacher's perspectives should be involved.
- Feedback should be designed on highlighting the pupil's strengths.
- Tasks used in assessment should be good learning tasks in themselves.
- Scaffolding should be provided for pupils in carrying out the tasks.

While the purpose of the assessments in this study was for determining subjects' language developmental stages, the special demands when assessing young learners could not be neglected. On the contrary, these demands should be fulfilled.

Rapid Profile (Pienemann, 1988) and a reading and writing self-assessment were implemented in the current study in order to provide the subjects' linguistic profiles and reading and writing abilities. Rapid Profile is highly favoured due to its feasibility on obtaining detailed language learners' linguistic profiles whereas self-assessment a) provides an indicator of how confident learners were about their own language abilities and b) measures the learners' reading and writing skill development throughout the studied programme. The following sections provide detailed designs and procedures of the assessments implemented in the current study.

3.3.3.1 Rapid Profile

Rapid Profile (RP) is a computer-assisted language profiling procedure, which measures learners' language developmental stages. RP is 'a practical method of obtaining information about a learner's stage of grammatical development in the second language'

(Pienemann, Johnson, & Brindley, 1988:220) It basically assesses L2 learners' natural speech samples against the background of second language acquisition standard patterns (Pienemann, 1992).

Theoretical framework of Rapid Profile

The theoretical programme design of RP is developed from Profile Analysis (Crystal, Barman & Fletcher, 1976). The current vision of RP is constituted by Processability Theory (Pienemann, 1998). Based on the findings from his study in 1985, Pienemann argues that second language development follows a universal schedule which is more or less the same as that of a first language learner; the fundamental claim of Processability Theory is that language learners gradually build up processing capacity in the target language and that different linguistic forms vary in their degree of complexity of processing (Pienemann, Johnson, & Brindley, 1988., 1988).

In order to differentiate one of a learner's developmental stages from another, Pienemann et al. (ibid) categorize English language learners' development features, referred to as 'Developmental Schedules', into six stages, which are demonstrated in Table 3.4 (p. 121).

Table 3.4 Developmental Schedules by Pienemann et al. (2003)

Stage	Phenomena	Examples
6	Indirect Question (SVO)	I wonder what he wants.
5	Neg/Aux-2nd-?	Why didn't you tell me? Why can't she come?
	Aux-2nd-?	Why did she eat that? What will you do?
	3sg-s-	Peter likes bananas.
4	Copula S (x)	Is she at home?
	Wh-copula S (x)	Where is she?
	V-Particle	Turn it off!
3	Do-SV(O)-?	Do he live here?
	Aux SV(O)-?	Can I go home?
	Wh SV(O)-?	Where she went? What you want?
	Adverb-1st	Today he stay here.
	Poss (Pronoun)	I show you my garden. This is your pencil.
	Object (Pronoun)	Mary called him.
2	S neg V(O)	Me no live here. / I don't live here.
	SVO	Me live here.
	SVO?	You live here?
	-ed	John played
	-ing	Jane going.
	Plural-s (Noun)	I like cats.
	Poss-s (Noun)	Pat's cat is fat.
1	Words	Hello, Five Dock. Central
	Formulae	How are you? Where is X? What's your name?
Rapid Profile, revised labels for the phenomena/examples. Pienemann 2003		

Key Features of Rapid Profile

There are some important features in the construction of Rapid Profile, which are also the main considerations for its use in this study. These are: (1) the application of emergence criterion, (2) the use of communicative tasks which are specifically designed to elicit certain linguistic forms, (3) the use of expert shell for determining stages of development and (4) the high viability of the observation procedure.

Within the Processability Theory, 'acquisition is defined by emergence; and the level of acquisition is therefore defined by the complexity acquired' (Pienemann, 1992:7). Meisel et al. (1981) have proposed the use of the 'emergence criterion' when assessing L2 learners' interlanguage. It is based on the discovery of a fundamental grammatical property. Pienemann et al. (1988) further argue that it is not appropriate to rate learners' language against the 'quantitative acquisition criterion' since very rarely do we find language learners getting things 100% correct from the very first time of a certain grammatical feature being used in the target language. Therefore it is more reasonable to say a learner is ready to process a certain grammatical feature from the time-point when they first attempt to use it in their interlanguage system.

Communicative tasks are used to elicit learners' interlanguage data during the Rapid Profile screening procedure instead of naturally occurring data. The use of this type of task is aimed at providing task takers with natural contexts to produce the target language with authenticity. Mackey (1994:68) argues that 'certain language features do not occur naturally in conversation very often, but are important in determining developmental level'. Hence, communicative tasks are also for the purpose of increasing data density during the screening procedure.

One of the main reasons for measuring learners' L2 development with Rapid Profile is also one of the key features of it, the use of expert shell for determining the stages of learners' L2 development. The emergence of grammatical features might be very straightforward in the area of syntax, it is however not the case in the area of morphology as 'one cannot make any *a priori* decisions about the status of morphemes in interlanguage, because words that consist of several morphemes in the target language might only be stored as mono-morphemic units in the interlanguage' (Pienemann, 1992:10). For this reason, the acquisition criteria are implemented into an expert shell that is able to communicate with the rest of the RP software. By doing this, the software is capable of

doing a very careful distributional analysis on the basis of the information entered by the analyst (ibid).

The observation procedure of Rapid Profile is highly viable in terms of the time it consumes for each individual as well as its reliable results for on-line screening. The original design of this software was for it to be used in an on-line manner for classroom practice. Hence it is required to be feasible for teachers to operate without assessment preparation hassles such as recording and full transcription analysis. Pienemann (ibid:12) claims that 'the objective of the procedure is to pin-point the learner's level of acquisition', hence 'the analyst does not have to record everything that occurs..., as long as the observations that are made are accurate'.

However, it is important to note that RP is designed for determining learners' development stages in grammatical competence. It does not measure learners' socio-cultural competence, discourse competence, or strategic competence.

The language testing programme, Rapid Profile (Pienemann, 1988) was employed to obtain the subjects' target language profiles in pre- and post-course proficiency tests. RP is a computer-assisted procedure that screens and assesses language learners' speech samples (Lenzing, 2007), in this study English as a target language. The software is programmed to determine ESL/EFL learners' developmental stages proposed by Pienemann (1988, 1992, and 1998).

Screening/Profiling Procedure

Interviews were set up for collecting subjects' language samples. For eliciting linguistic indicators, a series of communicative tasks were administered by the researcher in the interviews. The interviews took up about 10 to 15 minutes for each individual.

In order to avoid task bias, the subjects were familiar with the types of tasks administered in the interviews. Furthermore, as discussed above, the interviews were

carried out on a one-on-one basis, in order to prevent the subjects being paired with someone they knew too well or were not willing to interact with. Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) find that language learners' task performance in group work/pair work can vary significantly when interacting with different participants. Learners tend to have better performance when interacting with peers they like, and under-perform when working with someone they dislike. Hence all participating subjects were assigned the same interviewer to maintain test reliability.

The selection of Linguistics Items Eliciting Tasks

The use of tasks during the screening procedure is for the purpose of eliciting learners' 'production of morpho–syntactic structures' and for 'Rapid Profile to work efficiently' (Mackey, 1994:67). Furthermore, the tasks need to have the features of 'goal-oriented interactive activities, which are designed to promote conversational interaction between the participants as they carry out the activity' (ibid:68).

A series of tasks were used during the language profiling procedure in this study. The tasks included an informal interview as a warm up (teacher-learner interview), a closed picture information gap task (attached in Appendix 9 Close Gap Activity - Park Field Trip), a student-teacher interview with key word cues (attached in Appendix 10 Student-Teacher Interview), a picture recognition and description task (attached in Appendix 11 Picture Recognition & Description Tasks) and a picture sequencing and story-telling task (attached in Appendix 11 Picture Recognition & Description Tasks). The informal interview included questions about the learner's habits, and personal background information in order to elicit linguistic features in general and their ability to use the past tense. The closed picture information gap task was aimed at probing questions and negations. The picture recognition task was for the purpose of obtaining learners' emergent use of third person singular 's' –ed, and –ing. The student-teacher interview with word cues was to provide

opportunities for question formation during the post-course test. The selection of tasks was suitable for proficiency levels 1 to 5 in the framework of Processability Theory, which is for beginner to upper-intermediate level.

During the task selection stage, a few issues have been taken into account, as they might have a certain degree of effect on the learners' speech samples to be collected. The issues were: 1) task type appropriateness, 2) age appropriateness, 3) interlocutor appropriateness, and 4) variety of the tasks.

Topics and types of all four tasks were those the subjects are familiar with, which were personal background interview, scenario and occupation picture recognition, and park field-trip information gap activity. Additionally, the student-teacher interview task was aimed at replacing the park field-trip information gap activity in post-course RP tests. The park field-trip information gap activity was a close gap activity in which the learners have to find 10 differences between the given pictures. Hence it was very likely, after finishing the task in pre-course RP tests, that the learners could complete the task without actually doing it as they already knew the answers from the pre-course test. Therefore, the learner-teacher interview was introduced in post-course RP tests to elicit learners' production of question formation.

Seedhouse (1999) points out that young learners focus on completing the tasks and produce only the modest linguistic output which is necessary. In other words, pairing learners with interlocutors they know too well might have a negative effect on eliciting linguistic data for this research. Nevertheless, pairing learners up with someone they do not enjoy having interaction with also has an impact on their task performance (Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998). Therefore it is vital to pair up subjects with a neutral interlocutor.

There were four different types of task selected in this study. In Mackey's 1994 study, it is acknowledged that language features do not occur evenly in different types of task. Therefore, it was necessary to combine different types of task in this study in order to

create a more orbicular context for learners to use all the language features they have acquired.

Acknowledging limitation of Rapid Profile

I need to stress here, even though RP allows the researcher to determine learners' language developmental stages and provides a very detailed distributional analysis, it does not evaluate learners' ability in communicative competences other than grammatical competence in the target language. In other words, RP does not measure learners' socio-competence, discourse competence, or strategic competence. In addition, it also only measures learners' on-line productive skill, speaking.

To gain a better view the development of learners' multi-faceted L2 repertoire other than real time productive skill, a self-assessment of reading and writing was employed in this study.

3.3.3.2 Reading and Writing Self-Assessments

The stresslessness of self-assessment (also known as self-rating, self-appraisal, or self-control) is the main reason for its implementation in the current study. Moreover, it provides good indications of language learners' self-confidence in using the target language, which is one of the attributes in their motivation matrix (Masgoret Bernaus, & Gardner, 2001). Such assessment has been generated as a field of interest in language learning and testing from the 1970's (LeBlanc & Painchaud, 1985) in Europe. Self-assessment is designed for learners to assess their own language ability for various reasons ranging from advancing learning strategy (Oxford, 1990), promoting autonomous learning (Gardner, 2000a), involving learners' view on their assessment (Windeatt, 1981), to as an alternative to a placement test (LeBlanc & Painchaud, 1985). It is, in general, in the form of a

questionnaire with either open-ended questions or a Likert scale grading list, depending on the language skills and items to be evaluated. It has been widely used in Europe with language learners in primary education since the 1980's (Hasselgreen, 2003, 2005).

The Modern Languages Project of the Council of Europe has further encouraged the use of self-assessment as it is to promote autonomous, learner centred and motivating learning as well as provide insight to learners' perspectives on their own language ability (Blanche & Merino, 1989). It is highly popular due to the beneficial backwash it brings, such as motivating learners, actively involving learners in the evaluation process and promoting learners' self-monitoring. Self-assessment also has been successfully implemented for placement purposes in a large-scale study (LeBlanc & Painchaud, 1985).

The literature has also been reviewed focused on both the lower levels of language learning and young learners, and the results have shown an emerging pattern - 'one of consistent overall agreement between self-assessments and ratings based on a variety of external criteria' (Blanche & Merino, 1989). Similar results are presented in more recent studies (Allwright, 1988; Ross, 1998; and Shameem, 1998). It has been thought to be a valid and reliable measure of language proficiency.

Alongside the expanding use of self-assessment in the language learning context, the question of its reliability and validity has inevitably drawn much attention from the field of language testing (Fok, 1981; LeBlanc & Painchaud, 1985; Blanche, 1988; and Ross, 1998). It is now being recognized that learners do have the ability to provide useful and meaningful contributions to the estimation of their performance under certain circumstances (Harris, 1997; Ross, 1998; Shameem, 1998). Blanche and Merino (1989:324) have suggested, based on the literature reviewed, that 'higher correlations were obtained between self-assessments based on such situational models and other examination results then between other examination results and global self-appraisals of "macroskills" like

"writing" or "understanding a native speaker"', furthermore, 'most learners would be likely to find it comparatively easier to assess their purely communicative skills' (p:325).

A simple self-assessment, which was in an 'I-can' scoring layout, was implemented on two occasions in this study, pre-course, and post-course in order to measure subjects' self-confidence change in their reading and writing skills. The format of the questionnaire was based on 'My languages portfolio' which was developed by the Centre for Information on Language Teaching (CILT) and Research in the UK (CILT, 2001), focussing on learners' being able to do different things with their target learning language. The Reading & Writing Self-assessment Questionnaire (RWSA, see Appendix 3 Reading and Writing Self-Assessment, p.293) allowed the subjects to show, by colouring/circling the appropriate scores, that they could perform a wide range of straightforward and simple functions in writing and reading skills such as:

I can read numbers 1-100.

.
.
.

I can read the story of 'A very Lucky Day' by myself.

The instrument contained 17 statements, 9 statements for reading and 8 for writing skills. All items were concrete tasks and graded/arranged in complexity levels, from the least complex item to the most complex. Instead of giving statements in general language ability such as 'I am a good reader of English', concrete tasks were implemented in this study as the use of concrete task in statements is essential for a reliable self-assessment (Shameem, Windeatt, Personal communication).

The subjects were required to fill in this questionnaire on two occasions, after the pre-course language profiling procedure and after the post-course language profiling procedure. They were asked to read each of the 17 statements and to give themselves a score on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (☹not so well) to 6 (☺Excellent); the scores 2, 3, 4 and 5

were left without a specific description. The minimum score was therefore 17 while the maximum score was 102. This scale was chosen because the ultimate purpose of the instrument was to track changes of the subjects' self-assessment and confidence level of their language abilities. Additionally, in order to make the statements more comprehensible and to reduce ambiguity, the RWSA was illustrated by companying concrete examples, which correspond to the more complex items to be evaluated so that more reliable results can be obtained.

As reviewed in the literature (LeBlanc & Painchaud, 1985; and Blanche & Merino, 1989), it is recommended that self-assessment is only reliable when learners have sufficient literary skills of the items to be tested. In other words, the assessment is only reliable when learners can understand the questions/statements. For this reason, the questionnaire was translated into the learners' first language, Chinese. In addition, to ensure the meanings of the statements in the questionnaire were not misapprehended during the translation process, the Chinese version of the RWSA was proof-read by a professional interpreter and back-translated into English to ensure that the meanings were correctly presented in the subjects' first language.

The use of RWSA in this study was for the purpose of involving the subjects' own estimation of their language development in reading and writing skills throughout the course time. Hence it was important to stress in advance that the emphasis during the later data analysis period was on the amount of an individual's development rather than determining subjects' actual proficiency level against external criteria such as ESL scales. However, the use of RWSA as a measuring tool of the learners' reading and writing skills development could be problematic as the subjects involved in the current study were at very young age and possessed very limited proficiency in the target language.

RWSA, in the current study, mainly provided a means of indicating learners' confidence level in their own target language abilities. Learners' confidence level in their

own language abilities are thought to be an important factor in their learning motivation and self-assessments could provide a reliable indicator for their confidence level (Masgoret, Bernaus, &Gardner, 2001).

The actual version of RWSA was presented in two languages, English and Chinese, alongside each other for two purposes. First, the English version provided examples for the tasks listed in the questionnaire while the learners took the assessment whereas the Chinese version provided clarifications when needed. Second, RWSA functioned as a warm-up for the following Rapid Profiling procedure. The learners were expected to perform equivalent speaking skills to the most difficult tasks listed in RWSA, items 7, 8, 9 in reading skills, and items 14 to 17 in writing.

3.3.3.3 Scoring method of Assessments in the Present Study

Bachman & Palmer (1996) suggest that there are situations when 'individuals with high levels in some of the areas of language ability to be tested can use these high levels of ability to compensate for low levels of ability in other components'. Under these circumstances a 'compensatory composite score' can be obtained by summing or averaging the separate scores while 'non-compensatory composite scores' (p. 224) are individual presentations of each skill tested. However, the skills tested in this study should be viewed as three different aspects of individuals' L2 ability due to the purpose of the two assessments implemented in this study being aimed at measuring individual learners' development in three different skills, speaking, reading and writing after the 6-week CBLI programme. Therefore the skills assessed will be treated separately by using non-compensatory composite scores rather than compensatory composite scores. Another reason for adapting non-compensatory composite scores is also due to the fact that a learner's four skills do not necessary develop in parallel.

3.3.3.4 Assessments Validity & Reliability in the Present Study

Validity and reliability are the most fundamental concerns in the development and use of language testing (Bachman, 1990). Bachman (ibid) sees reliability as a question regarding 'how much of an individual's test performance is due to measurement error, or to factors other than the language ability we want to measure?' (p. 160) whereas validity is 'an integrated evaluative judgment of the degree to which empirical evidence and theoretical rationales support the adequacy and appropriateness of inferences and actions based on test scores' (Messick, 1988: 13). It was important to ensure the assessment results were as accurate and appropriate as possible as the test results were used to interpret the learners' language development after receiving the summer programme. In other words, the test results were one of the indicators to determine whether the programme studied was effective for the learners' target language development. The validity and reliability for each assessment method, Rapid Profile and Reading and Writing Self-assessment, in the current study are justified below.

Rapid Profiling Procedure

The use of RP procedure was to determine the subjects' language proficiency against developmental stages by screening though the subjects' natural speech samples, whereas the purpose of the eliciting tasks was to elicit the subjects' authentic speech samples. The speech sample generated by the eliciting tasks therefore should be representative of the subjects' actual speaking abilities. Further, the amount of data gathered from pre- and post-course tests were concluded to be sufficient to determine the participants' developmental stages by RP software during the screening procedure.

Messick (1988; 1996) advocates an integrated inspection of validity in which construct validity is essential. In his framework he suggests that, in order to measure

accurately, a test must consider each aspect of the construct; in this study it is to identify specific phenomena which occur in a learner's developmental stages, otherwise the test suffers from construct under-representation. For illustration, an observer/teacher cannot claim a learner is unable to produce question forms based on a piece of speech sample. Instead, a learner's ability of question formation can only be determined when there are opportunities provided to perform such a task during the speaking test. The construct validity of the use of RP in this study was ensured by adapting a variety of language sample eliciting tasks. Studies (Mackey, Pienemann, & Thornton 1991; Pienemann, 1992; and Mackey, 1994, etc.) have shown that language samples elicited from a variety of tasks contribute to the accuracy of the profiling procedure.

There are two major reliability aspects of the RP procedures: a) the efficient elicitation of relevant data which has been addressed above (cf. 3.3.3.1 Rapid Profile, p.119); and b) the level of accuracy obtained in the observation task through interactive training. To obtain reliable results of RP, I, as the researcher for the present study, have completed the RP training programme successfully and have passed the RP training analyst test.

Although the original design of RP is for on-line screening, it can also, by all means, be used with pre-coded/written/recorded interviews. Recorded data plus full transcript analysis were carried out to further ensure the reliability of the profiling procedure.

Both reliability aspects, a wide range of elicitation tasks to generate sufficient speech samples and accurate observation of the RP procedure carried out in the present study were satisfied. Hence, the RP test could be claimed as a reliable and valid assessment. The use of RP was also considered to be the most reliable compared to assessments measured with descriptive scales such as IELTS and ESL scales for the reason that these descriptive scales can be subject to raters' subjective explanations.

Reading & Writing Self-Assessment

The purposes of the Reading & Writing Self-Assessment (RWSA) were to evaluate how target subjects improved their reading and writing abilities and to provide an indicator of how their self-confidence changed after receiving the 6-week input sessions. It was expected the RWSA results might be subject to variables such as parental expectations, past academic record, and lack of training in self-assessment due to the fact that the subjects' proficiency levels were not sufficient to evaluate themselves (Blanche, 1989, 1990; Coombe, 2002; LeBlanc, & Painchaud, 1985;). Nevertheless, self-assessment provides a good indicator for determining language learners' self-confidence level which is an important attribute for motivational research.

Following Dörnyei's (2003) guidelines, the initial list of RWSA was subjected to expert judgment for redundancy, content validity, clarity, and readability. The experts were two doctoral students who worked as English language teachers for primary schools in Taiwan and are familiar with language testing literature, and two senior lecturers in the School of Education Communication and Language Sciences at the University of Newcastle upon Tyne. The list of the test items was also double-checked with two teachers teaching in Grade 1 in the school studied to ensure the test items were level-appropriate. Some changes were made after the teachers' review. These changes will be disclosed in a later section (cf. 3.4 Piloting in p.134).

3.4 Piloting

Bryman (2004) stresses the importance for piloting instruments especially for research employing self-completion questionnaires. He points out that by piloting one can ensure research instruments function well as a whole. Also, ambiguities and misleading questions can be identified beforehand. Most of the instruments were piloted in the present study. The piloted instruments were Rapid Profile (RP) eliciting tasks, Reading and Writing Self-Assessment Questionnaire (RWSA), and Learning Motivation Questionnaire (LMQ). The teacher participant's interview schedules were not piloted but were only subjected to expert judgments which will be discussed later in 3.4.4 Expert Judgment.

Gillham (2000) summarises a list of pros and cons of implementing questionnaires in research. In this, 2 drawbacks he identified had direct impact on present study, a) respondent literacy problems, and b) question-wording can be a main effect on answers. The identified drawbacks of LMQ and RWSA via piloting are discussed separately below.

3.4.1 Learning Motivation Questionnaires

In order to identify any possible ungraspable/incomprehensible/obscure concepts for the target population, the English version of LMQ was piloted with young learners in the UK aged between 7 and 12 who are from Chinese, Arabic or Korean speaking countries and speak English as a foreign or second language. Apart from the youngest pilot subject (a 7-year-old Arabic native speaker), all subjects could finish the LMQ independently within 5 to 10 minutes. The 7-year-old Arabic speaking child, who had studied in a UK primary school for a year and half, could not read the questionnaire independently, and took significantly longer (about 30 minutes) to finish the questionnaire with the researcher's guidance, such as re-paraphrasing, and concrete examples. Several test items were re-worded after the LMQ piloting as they appeared to be confusing and ambiguous. The revised items were then re-tested.

3.4.2 Reading & Writing Self-Assessment

In order to identify any possible ungraspable/incomprehensible/obscure concepts for the target population, the English version of RWSA has been piloted with the same group of young learners who participated in the LMQ piloting, aged between 7 and 12 who are from Chinese, Arabic or Korean speaking countries and speak English as a foreign or second language. All subjects could finish the RWSA independently within 5 minutes. However, there were some changes made after subjecting it to expert judgments. This will be discussed in later section 3.4.4 Expert Judgment.

3.4.3 Back Translation

Both the LMQ and RWSA were translated into Traditional Chinese, the subjects' first language in spoken style, in which the LMQ was presented in random order. To ensure the meanings of the statements in the questionnaire were not misapprehended during the translation process, the Chinese versions of the LMQ and RWSA were proof-read by a professional interpreter and back-translated into English to ensure that the meanings were correctly presented in the subjects' first language. Some items were re-worded in the Chinese version of LMQ, mainly word orders and word choice, to make those items sound more like verbal language and less abstract.

3.4.4 Expert Judgment

Burns (1999) and Dörnyei (2003) suggest a good way to start piloting self-completion questionnaires is to subject the instrument to expert judgments. As suggested, all instruments in the present study, teacher participant's interview schedules, Rapid Profile eliciting tasks, RWSA and LMQ, were subjected to expert judgments before being piloted with pilot subjects. Such piloting was aimed at reassuring content validity, clarity, and readability, also it could help in identifying redundancy.

The RWSA expert judges were two doctoral students who worked as English language teachers for primary schools in Taiwan and are familiar with language testing literature, and two senior lecturers in the School of Education Communication and Language Sciences at the University of Newcastle. After the review, the order of some items was modified based on the degree of complexity. The list of the test items was also double-checked with two teachers teaching in Grade 1 in the school studied to ensure the test items were level-appropriate. A few items in the original RWSA were replaced after

the review by two Grade 1 teachers in the studied school as they were not level-appropriate. The teachers identified tasks that appeared to be too simple or too difficult for the target subjects. For instance, the target subjects were expected to be able to read 1 to 100 prior to entering the summer programme, however the original relevant question in the RWSA was to ask learners to grade themselves on how well they could read 1 to 10. Some writing tasks were identified as too difficult or reiterating in genre for the target subjects, such as writing about one's self, one's family, and one's friends. Hence, these tasks were integrated into 3 items with different genres and topics, 'I can write about things I like or dislike', 'I can write about my family and friends' and 'I can write a story with pictures'.

The LMQ expert judges were two doctoral students who are familiar with literature in questionnaire design and both worked as English language teachers in Taiwan, and two senior lecturers, one from School of Education Communication and Language Sciences, one specializing in quantitative research in sociology at the University of Newcastle upon Tyne. After the review, some items were re-worded in the Chinese version of the LMQ, namely on word choices. One of the doctoral students who taught English to young children pointed out that some wording in the Chinese LMQ was still too formal and abstract for 6-year-old children in Taiwan. Hence, some terms describing anxiety in the Chinese LMQ were replaced with descriptions of actual responses children normally have when facing anxiety, such as replacing 'confusing' with 'I can not think clearly'.

3.4.5 Rapid Profile Eliciting Tasks

The original set of RP eliciting tasks contained only 3 picture descriptions (see Appendix 11 Picture Recognition & Description Tasks), 1 story-telling (Appendix 12 Story Telling - Sequenced Pictures), 1 close information gap activity (Appendix 9 Close Gap Activity - Park Field Trip), and 1 teacher learner interview. These tasks were piloted with

4 EFL young learners, 2 male and 2 female, with similar anticipated proficiency levels as the target subjects. During the piloting processes, all piloted subjects responded to the information gap task accordingly. However, both male pilot subjects showed more interest in the story-telling task on a dinosaur topic and tended to produce much less target language when working on picture description. Further, the female piloted subjects did the opposite. The original set of RP eliciting tasks appeared to be gender biased on topic. Hence, a few more tasks were included to cover a wider range of topics. Therefore, during the actual data collecting process, the target subjects were given choices on selecting topics when working on picture description tasks and story-telling tasks.

3.5 Research Process & Data Collection

This study could be categorized as an evaluative case study which employs triangulation with elements from qualitative research paradigms. The current study was largely scientific paradigm. Brown (1989) defines the evaluation of a language programme as 'the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of a curriculum, and assess its effectiveness and efficiency, as well as the participants' attitudes within the context of the particular institutions involved.' Evaluation research involves evaluating interventions or organizational programmes, in this case a 6-week CBLI summer programme in a private primary school in central Taiwan, and attempts to conclude if the studied programme has achieved its proposed benefits, improving EFL/ESL learners' motivation attributes. There has been a growing recognition 'the fact that a combination of qualitative and quantitative designs might bring out the best of both approaches while neutralising the shortcomings and biases inherent in each paradigm' (Dörnyei, 2001:242). However the unique setting of the current study could not benefit from such combination.

This study has adapted mainly quantitative methods with qualitative data as complement in terms of its data generation techniques and approaches to analysis. Brown (ibid) further suggests that it is better to employ both quantitative and qualitative data when conducting research on evaluating a language programme/curriculum. A piece of research can better evaluate and make a more accurate decision when data is collected from different aspects, such as process/product orientations. Process orientation studies the proceedings of a programme/lesson whereas product orientation evaluates the outcome of a programme/lesson. Quantitative instruments focus on testing hypotheses in order to obtain objective and statistical data and eventually, if appropriate, to make conclusions about the

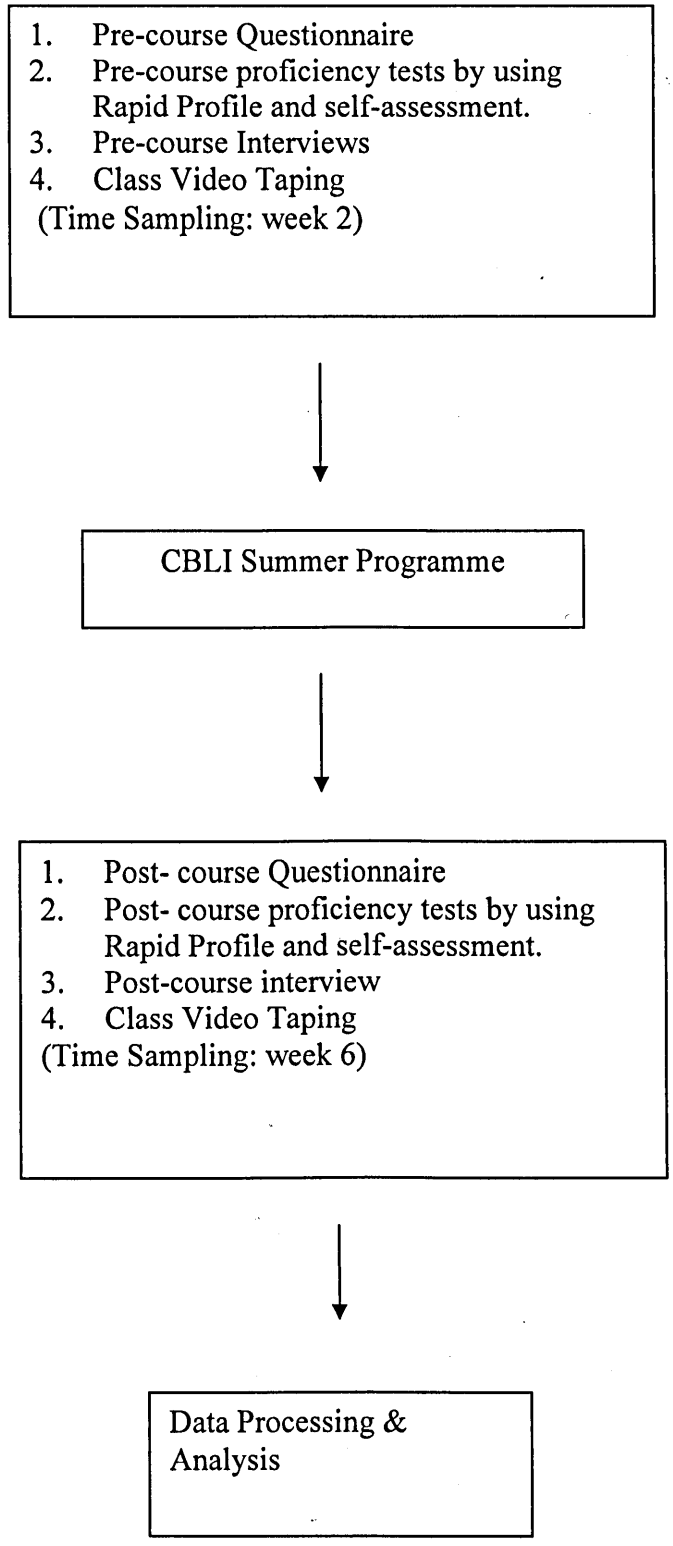
research group which may be generalisable to the larger population. This positivistic approach, however, is unlikely to unfold the complexities of a real-life context (Bryman, 2001). Hence, qualitative data triangulates and complements the statistical findings as well as help the researcher to understand 'the social world through an examination of the interpretation of that world by its participants' (ibid, 264).

As introduced in a previous section, this study collected both quantitative and qualitative data by using several research instruments (see 3.3 Research Instruments, p.99 for review). Very small amount of qualitative data, namely the teacher's interview and some of the class recording transcript, was collected and in an attempt to complement the quantitative side. The teacher's account of the subjects' learning motivation and language development was aimed at validating the subjects' self-report on their learning motivation. The classroom transcript was used to give examples of how exactly the target language was used in the recorded lessons.

3.5.1 Data Collection Process

Quantitative data analysis in this research comprised pre-course and post-course surveys, and pre-course and post-course language profiling (Rapid Profiling and Self-assessment Questionnaire) of learner participants. Qualitative measures included interviews with teacher participants in this study. This research was mainly focused on how CBLI impacts on young language learners' motivation, attitude, and language anxiety towards language learning and other relevant subject learning in school. Hence, in order to see how children see themselves and how they actually perform, data collection largely involved work with young children aged 6 and their English language teachers. To provide a clearer view of the data collection procedure it is illustrated in flow-chart format in Figure 3.1 (p. 141) below.

Figure 3.1: Flow Chart for Data Collection Procedure



Subjects were given language testing and assessment before the 6-week CBLI course started in order to gather details of their second language profile and language learning motivation, attitudes and classroom anxiety. Subjects' second language profiles were obtained through using language testing software, Rapid Profile and Reading & Writing Self-Assessment Questionnaire (RWSA, see Appendix 3 Reading and Writing Self-Assessment). Subjects' language learning motivation, attitudes and classroom anxiety were tested by using a Learning Motivation Questionnaire (LMQ, see Appendix 4 Learning Motivation Questionnaire) in a structured interview style. In order to triangulate data gathered from the subjects, their language teacher was given a semi-structured interview (see Appendix 5 Pre-course Teacher Participant Interview Schedule for interview schedule, cf. 3.3.1.2 Teacher Participant's Interview, p.108) 2 weeks after start of the course. This timing was for the purpose of letting the teacher observe and get to know the subjects' classroom performance. The objective of the 6-week course was to provide learner participants' input sessions with CBLI experience in language learning. After the subjects completed the 6-week input sessions, the language testing and profiling procedure was repeated, as well as the LMQ.

After finishing the programme, following the subjects' language development measurement, their teacher was given the second semi-structured interview (see Appendix 6 Post-course Teacher Participant Interview Schedule for interview schedule) about her 6-week observation of the subjects' learning motivation change. This teacher participant interview was aimed at more than just triangulating data collected from the post-course LMQ and RWSA, it was also for the purpose of obtaining meaning from inside of the target group (cf.3.3.1.2 Teacher Participant's Interview, p.108).

I collected data by using different types of interviews, and language development measuring tools. It was important to implement different instruments in this study as Oka (2000) argues that if the data collected from different sources show the same pattern, that

pattern is more credible. Brown and Rodgers (2002) also note that one can maximize the possibility of getting credible findings by cross-validating findings by examining data from at least two points of view. In this study, findings were cross-validated by the use of different sources and techniques, from both the learners and the teacher, and via questionnaires and semi-structure interviews. Table 3.5 provides a brief summary of valid data collected.

Table 3.5 Summary of Data Collected in the Current Study

Types of Data	Amount of Data
Students' pre- and post-course questionnaires (LMQ)	23 x 2 = 46 copies, N =23
Teacher's pre- and post-course interviews	2 interviews, N=1
Video taping	4 input sessions of 30 minutes classes, pre- and post-course language classes, and pre- and post-course content classes.
Observation notes	4 notes of the input sessions
Pre- and post-course Rapid Profiling	22 x 2 = 44 profiles, N = 22
Pre- and post-course self-assessments (RWDQ)	23 x 2 = 46, N = 23

3.5.2 The Researcher's Role

As the researcher of the current study, I acted as an unobtrusive observer and an interviewer throughout the data collection period. As noted above, this study employed observation and interviews techniques to collect data needed (cf. 3.3 Research Instruments, p.99) The observation was meant to provide means to gather data in order to better understand the six-week CBLI classroom interaction between the learners and the teacher. Acting as the interviewer for LMQ structured-interviews and language profiling (cf. 3.3.3 Measuring learners' language development, p.118) was to ensure inter-rater reliability.

Taking up the role as an observer could help gaining better insights of the classroom proceedings. Although the class was video-taped in four different sessions, the presence of the researcher allowed this study to have a better view of the actual classroom proceedings in terms of better grasp of classroom atmosphere and a closer view of the interaction amongst the subjects. The researcher's better knowledge of the classroom proceeding helped more accurately interpreted and analysed classroom interaction quantitatively and qualitatively (cf. 3.3.2.2 Facilitating observation, p. 113, 4.1 The Teacher's and the Learners' Classroom Verbal Interaction: Quantitative Analysis, p.161, and 4.2 The Teacher's and the Learners' Classroom Verbal Interaction: Qualitative Analysis, p.167).

The researcher also administered the LMQ in the style of structured-interview and semi-structured interviews for language profiling with the subjects. While administrating the LMQ, it was essential to be done in a structured-interview style as the subjects were not capable of reading the test items from the questionnaire. By the conduct of structured-interviews, assistance was made instantly available to the subjects. Further, the inter-rater reliability was ensured by conducting the interviews with the same interviewer.

3.5.3 Data Treatment & Analysis

This study employs largely quantitative methods and triangulates with minor qualitative techniques to investigate how Content-based language instruction impacts on young learners' language attitude, motivation and classroom anxiety in one particular EFL context. Hence it was important to analyze the collected data cautiously to match the proposed purposes of the data sources.

As each data collecting method was designed to find answers for each research sub-question, it was thus necessary to make clear how each source of data generated by different instruments was conceptualized and analyzed. This section presents how data collected from all sources was analysed.

3.5.3.1 Observation Notes and Video Tapes

As noted in section 3.5.1 Data Collection Process (p.140), this study collected 4 sets of observation notes and 4 class video tapes. The purpose of such data was to examine whether the studied programme was conducted in the way it claimed to be. In other words, the observation notes and class video tapes were to provide a means of inspection to see if the programme studied was valid and reliable as a content-based language programme. The observation notes documented quantified data whilst the video tapes were for the use of qualitative analysis.

Observation notes, namely by calculating tallies noted down with Part B of the adapted COLT scheme, provided a clear picture of communicative features (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995) in terms of proportions of the teacher's and the learners' speech types during classroom verbal interaction. Tallies noted down in Part A observation notes of the adapted COLT scheme illustrated what kind of language input was generated due to the different foci in language input sessions and content-subject sessions. Tallies calculated

from Part A and Part B of the observation notes were then computed to cross-examine how exactly communication features differed in language input sessions and content-subject sessions by demonstrating ratio changes. Table 3.6 (p.147) presents categorising examples for the teacher's and learners' speech during the recorded subject-learning and language input sessions.

Some class proceedings episodes captured on the video tapes were transcribed adapting the transcript conventions employed in Seedhouse (2004) and the features of CBLI were analyzed according to the description of CBLI elaborated in chapter two (see details of transcript conventions in appendix 10). Extracts of class proceedings episodes were then presented to provide an emic view of the summer programme.

Table 3.6 Categorising Examples for Teacher's and Learners' Speech

Teacher's Speech			
Speech Type	**Speech Samples**		
	Appendix	**Exchange**	**Actual Utterance**
1. Minimal Speech	1	1	No? You know trip?
2. Sustained Speech	1	18	Oh! You guys come down here. I tell you I made a mistake.
3. Give predicted Information	-	-	N/A Note: the learners did not request any predicted information.
4. Give un-predicted Information	1	18	Oh! You guys come down here. I tell you I made a mistake.
5. Request predicted Information	1	89	Can pigs wear glasses?
6. Request un-predicted Information	2	33	Why? What do you think the sun is going to do to our water?
7. Focus on form	4	20	Different word to small. (in respond to S8's utterance Exchange 19 in the same extract)
8. Focus on Meaning	4	72	I want you to measure two ways. Measure from here to here.
Learners' Speech			
Speech Type	**Speech Samples**		
	Appendix	**Exchange**	**Actual Utterance**
1. Minimal Speech	1	3	Lollypop!
2. Sustained Speech	1		
3. Give predicted Information	1	90	No! (in responding to the teacher's question: can pigs wear glasses?)
4. Give un-predicted Information	2	34	The sun will go drink the water and no more water.
5. Request predicted Information	-	-	N/A
6. Request un-predicted Information	1	71	Who is in this picture?
7. Focus on form	1	73, 75,77 ,etc.	'Pigs in a Rig.', 'Written by Helen Lester', 'Illustrated by Karen Smith' (Learners were repeating reading text after their teacher)
8. Focus on Meaning	2	34	The sun will go drink the water and no more water. (Student E was trying to explain water evaporation.)

3.5.3.2 Learning Motivation Questionnaire and Reading & Writing Self-Assessment

LMQ and RWSA were administered both pre- and post-course. The results were then computed with the Pair-sample T test and Wilcoxon Sign Rank Test to measure if there are any significant changes for the studied class as a whole and for each participating individual's motivational attributes after studying in this CBLI programme. Correlations amongst the motivational attributes were also investigated to see how certain attribute changes correlate to the other attributes

Language learners' learning motivations can be influenced by the above mentioned-factors. Hence, it is important to examine each factor and analyse how they interact with each other. As reviewed in the previous chapter, young learners' language learning motivation is not as straightforward as we think it might be. The LMQ contained 43 randomised questions originated from six categories which are thought to be major factors that impact young language learners' learning motivation: a) language attitude; b) subject preferences; c) affective factors which include positive wording statements and negative wording statements d) classroom anxiety e) parent support and f) other motives of target language learning. The other important motivation attribute investigated in this study is the learners' self-confidence and this is tested via the use of the RWSA.

Within the category of affective factors were two sub-categories, positive wording statement and negative wording statement. Each sub-category contained 5 affective statements, positively worded and negatively worded. It is very likely that one can have both positive and negative feelings towards language learning at the same time since it is a highly complex activity which requires different types of involvement; the learners might like some of them and dislike the others. It would not be considered as contradictory when a pupil strongly agrees with all positive-worded statements, but also slightly agrees with all negative-worded statements. Nonetheless, a negative correlation is expected. Hence, these two sub-categories are analysed separately.

3.5.3.3 Teacher's interviews

The interviews were summarized and any salient ideas highlighted and interpreted as appropriate. The results concluded from the interviews were then to compared with data gathered from learners' LMQ and RWSA to see if and how the teacher perceived the subjects' motivation changes differently.

3.5.3.4 Language Assessment – Rapid Profile Results

RP tests were administered pre- and post-course as LMQ and RWSA. Pair-sample T-test and Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test were utilized to determine how the participating subjects' grammatical proficiency developed after completing the summer programme. The subjects were placed in high and low proficiency groups to see if their proficiency level and the amount of their improvement correlated to changes in their motivational attributes.

3.6 Ethics

Ethical concerns have brought a huge impact on the methodology design of the present study and have led to the final determination on use of one of the data collection instruments, the one-on-one semi-structured interview rather than focus group. The following principles are summarized from relevant literature in this field of study (Bryman, 2001; Valentine, 1999; and Oka, 2000, etc.) and were strictly followed throughout the study.

3.6.1 Confidentiality

Ensuring confidentiality was crucial to the present study in terms of the results which were very likely to bring a very negative impact on the reputation of the participating school and teachers if they concluded that the use of CBLI had negative effects on learners' learning development and motivation. This could mean putting this private school out of business.

In addition, confidentiality was promised to the teachers and learners participating in the study. No individuals were identified in any way in the final report of this research. The teacher participant's personal opinions on the use and choice of curriculum might be seen as a criticism of the school, hence the result of the semi-structured interviews was coded and summarized in the final report. As for the learner participants, their structured-interviews were not disclosed to their teachers to prevent any influence on the teacher's emotions as some of the questions directly indicated students' personal opinions of their teachers.

3.6.2 Reciprocity

Glesne (1999) states ' as research participants willingly open up their lives to researchers – giving time, sharing intimate stories, and frequently including them in both public and private events and activities, ... but worried by their perceived inability to adequately reciprocate' (p. 126). Giving in return to the participants' great contribution in the present study, teachers and learners were given a full report on learner participants' language profiling results if they desired, which can highly benefit both teaching and learning (Pienemann, 1998). In addition, a full report of this study would be submitted to the school curriculum management team upon their request.

3.6.3 Informed consent

Obtaining informed consents is essential for any kind of research and especially in qualitative research due to its flexible nature (Bartunek & Louis, 1996). Consent forms (in Appendix E) from participants were obtained before the research was conducted, which clearly state what and how the participants would be involved in this study and the treatment of the information they provided.

3.7 Methodological Limitations

Five major methodological limitations in the current study are discussed in this section, 1) small sample size; 2) lack of control group; 3) the use of questionnaires with young learners; 4) language assessments; and 5) problems surrounding research with young children. Despite the adopted methodology being designed vigorously and carefully to ensure that the findings of this investigation would be as valid and reliable as possible, there are still some inevitable limitations resulting from the methodology adopted. It is explicable that this study was affected by some limitations and some of the complications that occurred were unanticipated.

3.7.1 Sample Size

The most serious major constraint in this study was the scope of the investigation, mainly on sample size, as a case study. This study was carried out in a very specific teaching context, a first grade class in a private primary school, hence, it would not be justified to claim its generalisability, applicability and transferability over other EFL contexts.

The selected samples accounted for another major constraint in the present study. This study was aimed at investigating how CBLI impacts on EFL young learners' learning motivation, language attitudes and classroom anxiety. However, the selected subjects were enrolled in a private primary school which was famous for its English language programme with the use of CBLI, so in some way one could argue that the selected subjects were in favour of English language. The learners were as young as 6 years old, and did not have a choice to decide which school they preferred, nevertheless they did, in some ways, receive more support/encouragement from their parents, which is a crucial attribute in motivational studies conducted with young learners (Dornyei1990, 2001; Gardner, 1985, 2003). In other words, the selected subjects were better motivated than the vast majority of EFL young learners in Taiwan. Hence this study can not be generalized to a representative population of EFL young learners in Taiwan. However, a replication of this study with larger numbers of students with different ages and proficiency levels and teaching staff, from different schools and Busibans, would be beneficial to verify and/or modify the findings of this inquiry.

3.7.2 Lack of Control Group

This study was designed to be a case study. There were no compatible control groups available during the data collection stage. At that time, the studied school provided CBLI curriculum only. Hence it was not possible to find a control group within that school. Although there were many EFL classes in other schools or Busibans, the setting, contexts, teaching and learning resources, teaching staff and input hours in the same period of time were not compatible to the studied group of learners and teacher. The lack of a control group in the current study was one of the most challenging difficulties.

3.7.3 The use of Questionnaires

Gillham (2000) points out that it is impossible check the seriousness or honesty of questionnaire answers. This drawback was one of the major limitations of the current study as it involved twenty-three children of the age of six. Although the implemented questionnaires were conducted in a relaxed but formal atmosphere, such a drawback could not be ruled out. A positive sign of the LMQ reliability was that the internal consistency was fairly good, as shown in Table 3.2 Internal Consistency Reliability Test Result of LMQ (p.108).

3.7.4 Language Assessments

Language assessment methods employed in this study were not sophisticated enough to claim the assessment results were representative of the subjects' complete language profiles during the course. As noted in 3.3.3.1 Rapid Profile and 3.3.3.2 Reading and Writing Self-Assessments, both instruments were reliable and valid for assessing what they proposed to assess, developmental stages of grammatical competence and reading and writing skills. The use of these two assessments nevertheless could not evaluate fully all aspects of the subjects' target language competence. The learners' socio-competence, discourse competence or strategic competence were not taken into account in the current study.

Further, the use of RWSA as an assessment tool was questionable in terms of its inter-rater reliability. One of the major concerns of using self-assessment as a criterion-reference test is the technicality of ensuring inter-rater reliability. Considering the subjects in the current study were at very young age, namely six years old, and with very limited proficiency in the target language, it was not viable to ensure all of them were assessing themselves with the same criteria.

Another concern about using RWSA results to judge the subjects' improvement was young children's lack of willingness to admit things they can not do well. Hence the results of RWSA were only treated as indicators of their self-confidence in the target language use.

3.7.5 Problems Surrounding Research with Young Children

The methodology of the current study was constrained by potential problems surrounding research with young children, which are discussed below.

Unequal Power Relationships

The unequal power relationship that exists between children and adults also leads to concerns over giving their own views and experiences to an adult researcher (Mauthner, 1997; Thomas & O'Kane, 1998; Kirk, 2007). These unequal power relations are mainly age-related (Mauthner, 1997; Kirk, 2007). Kirk (2007: p.17) suggests to adapting a more 'child-centred approach to data collection which views children as subjects rather than objects of research' in order to counter the effect of this difficulty. Hence, this study implemented instruments, namely LMQ and RWSQ that allowed the subjects to give their own account of their opinions toward their English language learning.

Different understanding of the World between Children and Adults

Many researchers have pointed out that children and adults see the world differently This is partly due to how researchers conceive childhood shapes their research and how they view children in their society (Harden, Scott, Backett-Milburn, & Jackson, 2000; Kirk, 2007; Punch, 2002). This gap between children and adults could cause misunderstanding in both directions, the children subjects misunderstand questions asked, and the adult researchers mis-interpret the children's responses. Punch (2002) recommends that researchers do not just impose childhood as how they know as children themselves to their research. Instead, researchers should take into account that they will have forgotten and abandoned elements from the world of children over time, and the fact that childhood itself will have changed in the years.

Unwillingness to Communicate with Unfamiliar Adults

One on one interviews are more appropriate for adults and older children. Younger children find themselves uncomfortable in such situations. They normally 'either remain silent, or answer in monosyllables or 'I don't know' (Mauthner, 1997: p. 23). Literature relevant to research with young children has suggested asking children questions about their feelings and specific daily events: when they get up in the morning, go to school, events in classroom, family, and friends (Mauthner, 1997; Williams, Wetton & Moon, 1989). These questions are much more effective than direct/open-ended question about the children themselves. Williams et al. (1989) also suggest that structured-interviews provide an alternative to the rigid question and answer format for young children.

Summary

The above reviewed potential problems surrounding research with young children played a vital role in terms of shaping the instruments in the current study. Due to the above raised concern on unequal power relationships between adults and children, the subjects' were directed involved in data collection instead of sole use of adults' account, namely the teacher's interview and the researcher's observation.

The questionnaires implemented in the current study, namely LMQ and RWSA, were carefully piloted (see 3.4 Piloting, p.134), back translated (3.4.3 Back Translation, p.136), and subjected to expert judges (see 3.4.4 Expert Judgment, p.136) to minimise the gap between the subjects' and the researchers' understanding of the world. In order to tackle the issue of unwillingness to communicate with unfamiliar adults, the original LMQ was conducted in a structured-interview manner within a small group of subjects. LMQ was not given as a simple structured-interview because the drawing element (colouring the answers from the questionnaire) provided a focus for children (Mauthner, 1997).

3.8 Summary

This study is a quantitative research supplemented with qualitative data. The quantitative data provided statistical evidence of how CBLI impacted on the subjects' language attitude, motivation and classroom anxiety as well as their language development whereas the ethnographic data, namely the teacher participant's observation of the learners' changes was revealed in the pre- and post-course interviews.

Due to the nature of this study mainly relying on quantitative analysis, the instruments employed, LMQ, RWSA and the eliciting tasks for Rapid Profile, were cautiously designed based on the theoretical considerations reviewed and further piloted to ensure validity and reliability of the study findings. Additionally, to build a constructive basis, justifications of why multiple data collection methods were opted for, together with the identification of the precautions of each method.

The following chapters, Chapter 4 and 5: Data Presentation, Analysis and Discussion: Part I and Part II, will present data gathered from the proposed methods. The data sets will be presented in a manner directed to what each instrument was designed to generate as each of the proposed instruments was specifically designed to investigate the stated research questions.

Chapter 4 Data Presentation, Analysis & Discussion – Part I

The main focus of this chapter is on data presentation, analysis and discussion of quantitative and qualitative data obtained from the classroom video recordings in order to validate the CBLI use prior to answering the research questions in this study. Section 4.1 discloses findings of classroom observation with quantitative analysis whereas Section 4.2 presents classroom observation results with conversational analysis.

Both quantitative and qualitative observation results indicate that there are major differences between language input sessions and subject-learning sessions. The learners used the target language more creatively in both pre- and post-course subject-learning sessions than in language input sessions. Results of conversational analysis further reveal that there were cognitive processes required for the learners in the subject-learning sessions whereas they purely made endeavours on linguistic items in the language input sessions. These findings are consistent with previous studies investigating the process of Content-based language instruction (Allen & Howard, 1981; Fröhlich, Spada, & Allen, 1985; Spada & Lightbown; 1989).

4.1 The Teacher's and the Learners' Classroom Verbal Interaction: Quantitative Analysis

This section examines data collected from pre- and post-course classroom video recordings in order to demonstrate how the subject-learning sessions and the language input sessions impact on the teacher's and learners' target language use in a foreign language classroom. This section includes information gathered by using both quantitative and qualitative approaches for observations.

The observations show that there are significant differences between subject-learning sessions and language input sessions in terms of a) teacher's and learners' verbal interaction and b) the ratio of their reactions toward meanings and forms. The teacher and the learners used more authentic classroom language in subject-learning sessions than language input sessions during both pre- and post-course observations (see Table 3.6 Categorising Examples for Teacher's and Learners' Speech, p.147, for reference). After cross-examining the teacher's pre- and post-course verbal interaction during subject-learning sessions and language input sessions, it is concluded that the teacher's speech quality is better in subject-learning sessions than in language input sessions in terms of authentic communication (see Table 3.6 Categorising Examples for Teacher's and Learners' Speech, p.147, for reference).

4.1.1 The Teacher's Speech

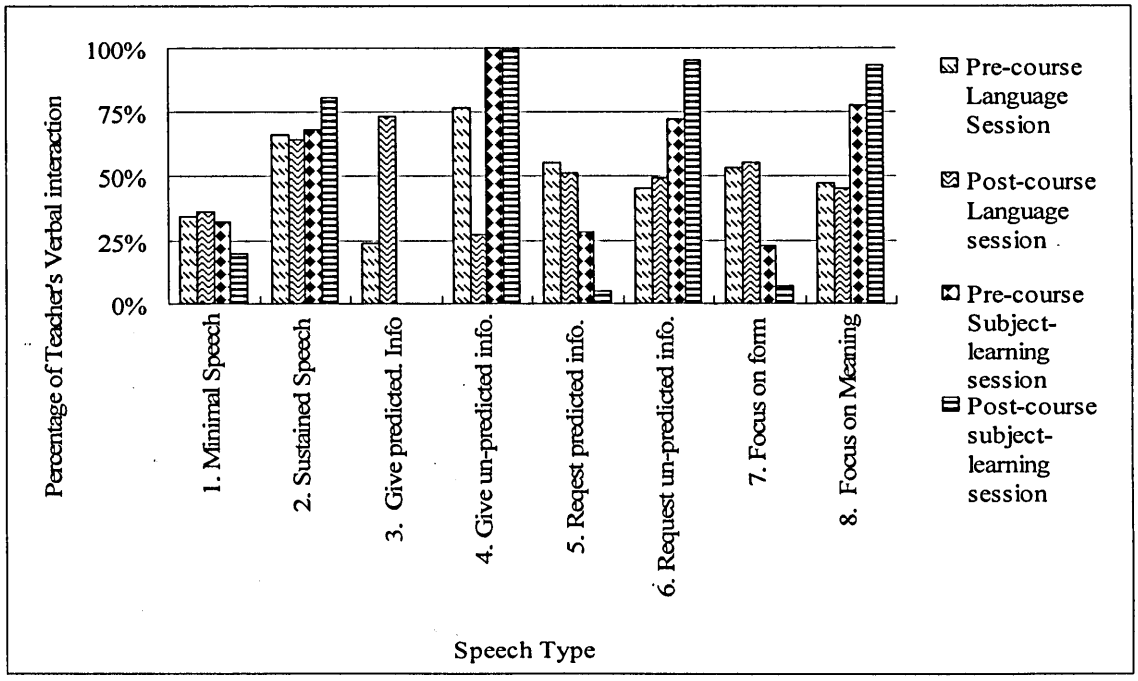
The teacher's speech varied considerably according to both the nature (content-learning sessions and language session) of each recorded session and the timing of the recordings, in week 2 (pre-course) and week 6 (post-course). As noted in Chapter 3, the reason the pre-course recordings took place during week 2 instead of week 1 was to allow the teacher and the learners to get to know each other and settle into the new environment. Figure 4.1 presents the teacher's verbal interaction with students during the 4 video-recorded sessions, pre-course language input session, pre-course subject-learning session, post-course language input session and post-course subject-learning session. The teacher's minimal speech, such as one-word or short-phrase answers (cf. 3.3.2.2 Facilitating observation, p.113, 3.5.3.1 Observation Notes and Video Tapes, p.145 and Table 3.6 Categorising Examples for Teacher's and Learners' Speech, p.147), was slightly less in subject-learning sessions than in language input sessions in week 2. This pattern remained the same in the week 6 recordings. On the other hand, the teacher tended to use more sustained speech, which at least consisted of 1 complete sentence in subject-learning sessions than in the language input sessions during the same periods of time. Furthermore, the teacher tended to use more genuine questions, such as asking for the learners' opinions on certain things, than pseudo questions in subject-learning sessions. Pseudo questions, also known as display questions, are very common in classroom settings. Such phenomena frequently occur in a language classroom which is usually aimed at drilling or generating certain grammatical forms or checking learners' comprehension (Seedhouse, 2004).

Figure 4.1 further reveals the teacher's speech in language input and subject-learning sessions during the last week of the intervention, week 6. The graph shows the teacher gave, as well as requesting, significantly more unpredicted information in subject-learning sessions than in language input sessions. Furthermore, the teacher reacted mainly towards

meaning, and only minimal attention was paid to form in subject-learning sessions. In addition, the teacher only gave predicted information in the language input session, and requested far more predicted information from the students in language input sessions than in subject-learning sessions.

By comparing the pre- and post-course percentage of verbal interaction for each speech type, it can be concluded that there is a consistent pattern to the teacher's language during the summer programme. The results show that the teacher used more authentic communication in CBLI sessions than in language input sessions which correspond to research carried out by other researchers in the past. Allen et al. (1985) find that there is more 'real communication' in immersion programmes than in pure ESL programmes.

Figure 4.1 The Teacher's Speech: Pre- and Post-course Comparison



4.1.2 The Learners' Speech

Like the pattern identified in the teacher's speech, the patterns of learners' speech showed that they tended to use more complete sentences in pre-course sessions than the post-course sessions, and more complete sentences in subject-learning sessions than language input sessions. Such a pattern reveals that the learners generated more complex speech in the subject-learning sessions than the language input sessions. It also shows that the learners produced more complex structures in week 6 than in week 2.

Figure 4.2 The Learners' Speech: Pre- and Post-course comparison

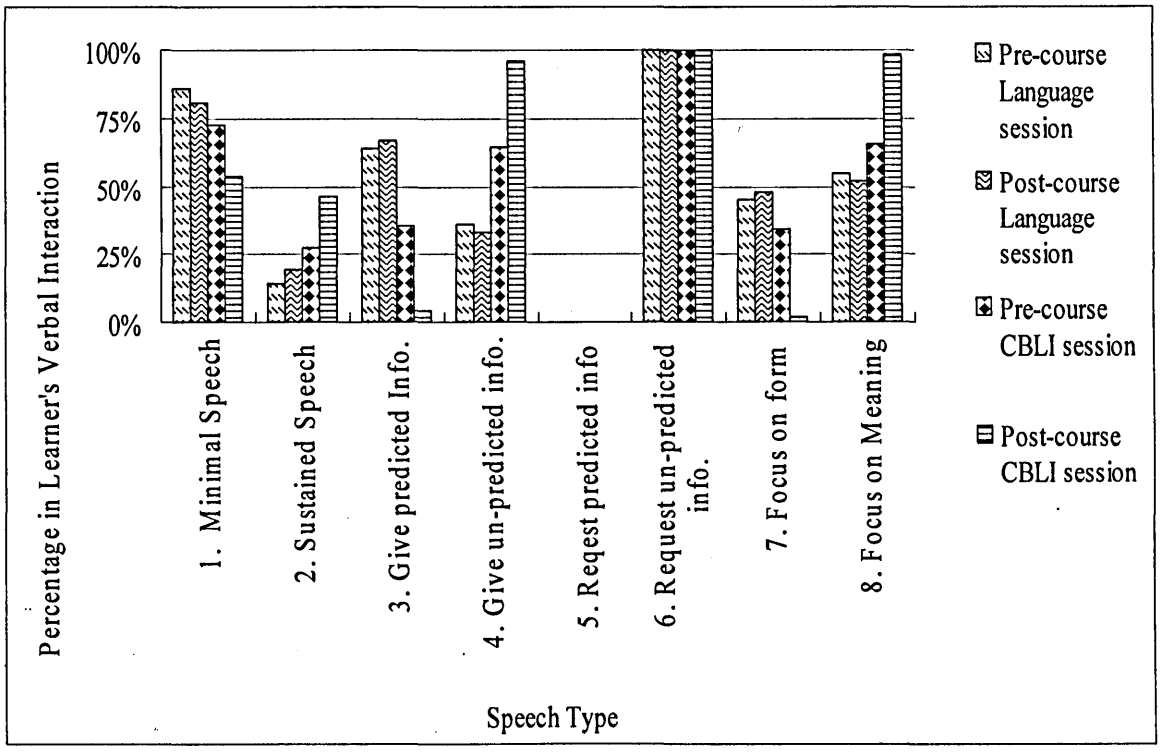


Figure 4.2 illustrates the learners' verbal interaction in detail during the 4 recorded sessions. The learners reacted more to meaning and less to form in subject-learning sessions; it is the other way around in the language input sessions in pre-course sessions. Such a contrast was sharper between the post-course subject-learning and language input sessions. Additionally, regardless of class type, unlike the teacher's speech, students did not produce any pseudo questions (ask for predicted information). On the contrary, the

learners asked un-predicted questions which means they only asked questions regarding the information they did not have.

The teacher's speech influenced the learners' responses noticeably. The figures on giving predicted information (shown in Figure 4.2 as '3. Give predicted-infor.') were very close between the pre-course subject-learning sessions and language input sessions. However, there is a large reduction between pre- and post-course sessions in general. Further, such type of speech was significantly less in post-course subject-learning sessions than in the language input sessions. Such contrasts directly corresponded to the teacher's verbal interaction pattern shown in Figure 4.1. The learners gave predicted information resulting from the teacher's request by using pseudo questions. Likewise, the learners provided more un-predicted information, such as expressing their opinions, when the teacher allowed them to by requesting un-predicted information. Such influences show that even in subject-learning sessions the teacher was in control of the classroom verbal interaction.

To sum up, the pattern shows that the students produced more sustained speech and gave more unpredicted information and reacted to meaning more frequently in subject-learning sessions. On the other hand, the students used much more minimal speech, gave more predicted information and reacted more frequently to form in language input sessions. These findings contradict some of the drawbacks of CBLI reviewed in a previous section (cf. 2.4.4 Common Teaching Practices in CBLI, p.79), which noted that language learners, frequently use their mother tongues and tend to have minimal use of target language in a CBLI programme (Seedhouse, 1999; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Swain, 1985), particularly when carrying out content-learning related tasks.

4.1.3 Summary of the Quantitative Analysis

The observation results show a consistent pattern which is similar to Allen's 1985 and Spada's 1995 research. There is a distinct difference between subject-learning and language input sessions and across time, in the 6-week programme. The results show that both the teacher's and the students' language production tend to be more dialogic and meaning focused in terms of speech types. This indicates that the subject-learning sessions did differ from regular language input sessions in this programme in terms of content and task types. The main significances in the subject-learning sessions are: the students a) used more sustained and less minimal speech; b) gave more unpredicted and less unpredicted information; c) reacted more frequently toward meanings and less toward forms. All findings from the observed subject-learning sessions echo the reviewed characters in the content-based language programme in section.2.4.2 Why use CBLI with EFL/ESL learners? (p.60, also please see Spada & Fröhlich, 1995 for a detailed review).

4.2 The Teacher's and the Learners' Classroom Verbal Interaction: Qualitative Analysis

Conversational Analysis is a way of analysing naturally occurring conversation in order and has been implemented to study rules of turn taking, how interlocutors' utterances relate to each other, and how social functions are carried out in conversations (Richards, Platt, & Platt., 1992). It is a qualitative research methodology and is thought to be representing an emic view of what actually happens in a language classroom (Seedhouse, 2004). Different institutional settings generate different types of discourse to serve certain communication needs (Seedhouse, 2004). By examining the extracts from teaching episodes, we are able to identify whether the main focus for a certain session is on linguistic forms or subject content.

In this section, I will present and discuss 4 extracts transcribed from the pre- and post-course classroom video recordings to provide an emic view of the classroom. Appendix 13 and Appendix 14 are transcribed from video tapes taken in the second week of the summer programme. Appendix 15 and Appendix 16 are derived from video tapes taken in the sixth week of the summer programme.

4.2.1 Pre-course Language Input Session vs. Subject-learning Session

Both the teacher and the learners were focusing on language learning in the recorded pre-course language input session (please find the complete episode transcript in Appendix 13, p.312) whereas they focused more on content-learning in the subject-learning session (please find the complete episode transcript in Appendix 14, p.316). The aim of the presented episode in the language input session was to cover the scheduled spelling list which was derived from their reading materials for week 2. This language input session also included other language teaching, namely phonics and reading. The other recorded session was a subject-learning session. The episode presented in Appendix 14 (p.316) was part of their second week science class on experimenting to see if black or white paper absorbs more heat. Consequently, the teacher's and the learners' attentions were directed to the content learning and their verbal interaction was built on the topic presented in that session.

The interaction in the pre-course language session extract seems dialogic and communicative between the teacher and the learners in terms of sharing more or less equal turns and the learners actually having the opportunity to speak in class. Nevertheless the learners' speech was, in some ways, constrained by the teacher as they had to raise their hands to compete for a chance to speak or to be named by the teacher. Although the activity was carried out in an interactive manner, the learners did not have chances to generate communication in the target language, which also requires a cognitive process as it usually does in a subject learning classroom. Furthermore, due to the focus of the episode being to help learners to practise with the spelling list provided, the resultant

interaction is a language class institution discourse rather than a subject learning class discourse.

The focus of the pre-course subject-learning session was on content knowledge instead of language learning. In this episode learners' attention was shifted from language production to cognitive learning. From the partial episode extract presented in Appendix 14 (p.316), it is obvious that the focus of this session was not about language forms or functions but it was aimed at carrying out a hands-on activity and finding out a specific scientific truth; whether white or black paper absorbs more heat during the process, the class had, and took, opportunities to create target language involving cognitive processes of the given content which fits subject learning institutional discourse proposed in CBLI programmes (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989; Chamot and O'Malley, 1987; Mohan, 1986).

The patterns of the teacher's and the learners' verbal interaction differed in pre-course language input sessions and subject-learning sessions resulted from different foci and nature of the sessions (see Appendix 13 and Appendix 14). The language input session focused on language instruction or practice whereas the subject-learning session involved both content knowledge and language practice. The most distinctive difference between these two sessions is that the teacher tended to allow the learners to express their opinions and this eventually enabled the learners to use the target language creatively. In contrast, due to the nature of the language input session, both the teacher and the learners were constrained in a very formulaic interaction and focused on language itself only. This finding is consistent with data gathered by using observation tallies presented in previous section 4.1 The Teacher's and the Learners' Classroom Verbal Interaction: Quantitative Analysis (also cf. Figure 4.1 The Teacher's Speech: Pre- and Post-course Comparison, p.163 and Figure 4.2 The Learners' Speech: Pre- and Post-course comparison, p.164).

Pre-course Language Input Session

The pre-course language input session proposed to introduce and practise language forms. The teacher started this episode with spelling words on the blackboard. In Extract 1 (p.171) exchanges 1 to 5, the teacher found it surprising that the learners did not know the word 'trip' from their spelling list as the word was derived from the reading story the learners were working on that week. Then she explained what a trip is with an example in exchange 4. In exchanges 6 to 10, the teacher elicited the correct spelling from the learners before she put the word on the blackboard. In exchange 10, the teacher asked the learners about how many times they should be writing the word instead of giving them instruction. Although it was not necessary, by asking questions as often as possible she created opportunities for the learners to participate and also succeeded in maintaining their concentration. A very quick response from S7 in exchange 11 indicates that the class knew the routine for spelling activity. Despite the fact that the learners were familiar with the activity, the teacher kept demonstrating how exactly she would like the learners to write their spelling words. This gave the learners a sense of belonging as they could see the teacher was doing as much work as they did. Additionally, the teacher reinforced by her action that everyone in the class should follow the rules without exception. The spelling activity followed a pattern of the teacher's initiation for a spelling word, one selected learner responding, then the teacher's feedback and finally finishing by writing the spelling words 5 times.

As the activity was form-focused and required to be controlled, the learners did not have opportunities to produce very much of the target language in terms of structures and functions. In fact, only exchanges 15, 16 and 19 were natural speech. In Exchange 15 learner S8 could not open his pencil case and asked for the teacher's help. In Exchange 16

learner S9 offered help. Exchange 19 was a complaint made by S10 protesting about the effort he wasted because of the teacher's mistake.

Extract 1 Pre-course Language Input Session - Spelling Exercise

1.	T	No? (1.5) you know trip?
2.	S2	no
3.	S3	Lollypop!
4.	T	Like a lollypop? (1.0) or like er (0.5) a holiday
5.	S4	Oh tha::t
6.	T	Anyone can spell trip?
7.	S5	Yeah! T (0.3) T (0.3) T (0.3)
8.	T	Hand up! (0.5) T:: what?
9.	S6	T-R-I-P
10.	T	Good job, Bob! (0.5) ri::ght now, this one is trip (0.5). T-R-I-P { writing 'TRIP' on the blackboard} (2.0) we are going to wri::te (1.0) how many times?
11.	S7	5!
12.	T	5? (.05) good job. 5 times (0.5) T-R-I-P (0.3) 5 times trip=trip=trip.
13.	S8	trip=trip=trip {imitating the teacher}
14.	T	5 times (1.0) trip trip trip trip (1.0){walking around the classroom checking learners' work} (2.0) good (3.0) good (5.0) oh:: such nice writing you guys (0.5) excellent! (2.0) Number 2 i::s crab (0.5) like from the ocean.
15.	S8	Teacher Stephanie help me open (1.5) {trying to open his pencil case} help me open
16.	S9	I help you (1.0) here. {Trying to open the pencil box for S8}
17.	T	T: I'm sorry one second {writing on the blackboard} (3.0) What do you need in there? (0.5) an eraser? {helping with S8's pencil box} (5.0) I can't do it. (1.0) can you borrow one from Emily? Emily, can he borrow an eraser? Oh you {talking to S9} did it (0.5) you did it (0.5) I'll put it here (1.0) so we don't drop it. {Talking to S8 while putting the pencil box away.
18.	T	Oh you guys (.05) come down here (1.0) I tell you I made a mistake//
19.	S10	I already write 4 time

(For the complete Episode transcript please see Appendix 13 Extract of Pre-course Language Input Session - Spelling Exercise, p.312)

Pre-course Subject-learning Session

This episode was part of their second week science class on experimenting whether black or white paper absorbs more heat (please find the complete episode transcript in Appendix 14, p.316). The session started with the teacher introducing the topic and activity they were going to do. Then, with the whole class, the teacher went through the instructions provided in the textbook sentence by sentence. Finally, the class did the experiment together. Extract 2 (p.172) showed exchanges between the teacher and the learners at the final stage of setting up the experiment and a discussion episode.

In exchanges 15 to 32, the teacher and the learners were at the final stage of setting up the experiment. Exchanges 15 to 20 showed that the teacher did not just appoint any learners to come up and help, instead she gave them a spelling task to compete for the chance to help or to express their opinions. The teacher successfully built up a classroom atmosphere in which the learners felt that being able to 'output' and participate are honourable and rewarding. This teaching strategy to motivate learners to participate can be observed from the early stage of the experiment set-up, exchanges 27 to 31 and later in the episode (please find the complete episode transcript in Appendix 14 for review).

Extract 2 Exchange 15-32 in Pre-course Subject-learning Session - Science

15.	T	Ok(0.5) oh yes, yes (0.5)k. Done! Excellent! Go sit down. Now we have to do 2 more things to the cups. One has white paper, one has black paper...what do we have to put in the cups?
16.	Ss	Water!
17.	T	Water! (0.5) ok:: (1.0) I guess the spelling is needed. Thanks. {a student passing the spelling list to the teacher.} (1.0) woo:: this is your bonus spelling from yesterday (0.5) who kno::w (0.5) {Ss putting their hands up}hands down, hands down=who knows:: how to spell 'trip'?
18.	S5	I know!
19.	T	Wow! {pointing at Betty}
20.	Betty	T-R-I-P.
21.	T	good girl. can you come and fill the glass with white paper? (5.0) excellent!
22.	S6	Teacher, can drink?
23.	T	It's science!
24.	S7	It's good to drink. [Why need to do the science?]

25.	T	Al::right. [ookeedookee (0.5) now] who can spell:: hands down, hands down. Oh::who is talking? Are you ready?
26.	Ss	Yeah!
27.	T	Who can spell 'big'?
28.	Ss	I can!... I kno::w! {Ss putting their hands up}
29.	T	Woo::ok put your hands down=I can't see you. I'm going to stand in the corner and watch the whole class. (1.0) are you ready? Hands down =ready? 'big'! (1.0)Chloe
30.	Chloe	B-I-G.
31.	T	Good girl! come and help to fill the glass..
32.	Ss	don't see::don't see::

After setting up the experiment, the class then moved on to a discussion on what would happen to the water in the cups in exchanges 33 to 47 (presented in Extract 3 below). Although all the questions were initiated by the teacher, the learners were allowed to express their views freely. Exchanges 34, 36 and 37 were responses by 3 different learners to the teacher's initiation in exchange 33. The teacher tried to narrow down the possibilities of what would happen to the cups in exchange 38 as the learners S8, in exchange 36, and S9, in exchange 37, started to become too imaginative. Despite getting the correct answer from the learner, Ken, in exchanges 41 and 43, the teacher did not comment on it. Instead, she left it to the end and wanted to let the learners find out about it from the experiment result. In addition, because to the focus of the episode was on the science experiment, the teacher did not put much effort into repairing the learners' output. Instead, the teacher only repaired by rephrasing what the learners had said in the feedback turn, such as exchanges 35, 42, 44, and 47. Also, the teacher only chose to repair exchanges that carried important messages.

Extract 3 Exchange 33-47 in Pre-course Subject-learning Session - Science

33.	T	Excellent! Thank you my two helpers. We have one cup with white paper around it. You guys go sit down. (1.0) ok. I need two people to help me to do the same thing with black paper = but you need to be ready for the spelling words.[put your hands down] hands down. Hands down.
34.	Ss	[I can=I can]
35.	T	Alright. Are you ready? Who can spell:: (0.5) milk! (1.0) Ken.
36.	Ken	M-I-L-K
37.	T	Good job=come on up. Ok. Hands down. Are you ready? Who can spell catch?
38.	S1	[I can!]
39.	S2	[I can!]
40.	S3	I can!
41.	T	Woo:: so fast! Jeff
42.	Ss	I can! I can!
43.	Jeff	C-A-T-C-H
44.	T	Wow! First try! Good job. Come on up here. Good for you! Alright
45.	S4	Oh, easy!
46.		{two selected students helping out to put black paper around the glass while the class watch on}
47.	T	Ok(0.5) oh yes, yes (0.5)k. Done! Excellent! Go sit down. Now we have to do 2 more things to the cups. One has white paper, one has black paper...what do we have to put in the cups?

In this episode the teacher used open-ended questions to elicit learners' opinions on the experiment they were doing, such as why was the experiment carried out (see Exchanges 15, 33, 35, 47, and 55 in Appendix 14, p.316), and what sort of results they were likely to get. These questions all required learners' cognitive processes. Rightly, the questions elicited learners' responses (see Exchanges 34, 36, 37, 41, 43, 45, 46 and 56 in Extract 3 above or Appendix 14 (p.316) in un-predicted ways.

4.2.2 Post-course Language Input Session vs. Subject-learning Session

The teacher's and the learners' attention was directed towards language learning in the recorded post-course language input session (please find the complete episode transcript in Appendix 15, p. 319), and towards content learning in the recorded subject-learning session (please find the complete episode transcript in Appendix 16, p.320). The two presented episodes were very similar in terms of a) the teacher and the learners sharing more or less equal turns in their verbal interaction b) verbal interaction in both episodes being firmly controlled by the teacher.

The two episodes differed considerably in respect of the degree of cognitive challenge involved. Due to the nature of the subject-learning session, the learners endeavoured to grasp the idea of measuring using non-standard units in that particular session, paper clips, with the teacher's help and hands-on activities. Such a session required the learners' efforts to a) learn relevant vocabulary and b) use skills of measuring. Therefore, the teacher and the learners' verbal interactions were shaped around the topic and getting each other's meaning across. In contrast, the recorded language input session was aimed at practising phonics, short vowels. Subsequently, the teacher and the learners' verbal interactions were built around language only, without any content-knowledge involvement.

Resulting from the setting of the two recorded post-course sessions, the language structures used by the teacher and learners were poles apart in these two sessions. The learners tended to use more complex language structures and longer sentences in the post-course subject-learning session whereas they did not produce any complex linguistic forms and mostly got their meanings across by using single word answers or questions as the context in that session did not require anything more than that.

Post-course Language Input Session

The post-course language input session was aimed at practising short vowel sounds. The session also included reading activity and a song. Appendix 15 (p.319) showed that both the teacher and the learners produced very limited target language in terms of structure variety. Furthermore, it shows how the learners' language output was restricted by the nature of the exercise. The teacher was the centre of the activity and was in total control. The learners did not have any opportunities to produce any complex linguistic forms as the context did not require any at all. Nevertheless it was totally acceptable as the aim for this activity was to practise short vowel detection.

Post-course Subject-learning Session

The recorded post-course subject-learning session was a Maths class. Appendix 16 (p. 320) presents part of two episodes in this session which in total consists of 5 episodes. The 5 episodes were vocabulary teaching, introduction of the topic, demonstration of measuring with paper clips, group practice and individual practice (please find the complete episode transcript in Appendix 16). The teacher was trying to teach the learners what measuring is and how to measure in that session. The extract was taken from the episodes of vocabulary teaching and introduction of the topic.

The teacher started the session with vocabulary teaching. In exchanges 1 to 8, the teacher was trying to find out how much the class knew about the topic before the vocabulary teaching episode started. In exchange 9, the teacher realised that her learners knew very little about the topic and decided to start from other words associated with measuring. From exchanges 11 to 30, the teacher elicited from the learners key words and concepts associated with the topic of measuring. In this, she did some repairing by providing proper terms to describe a person's weight and height. The teacher also

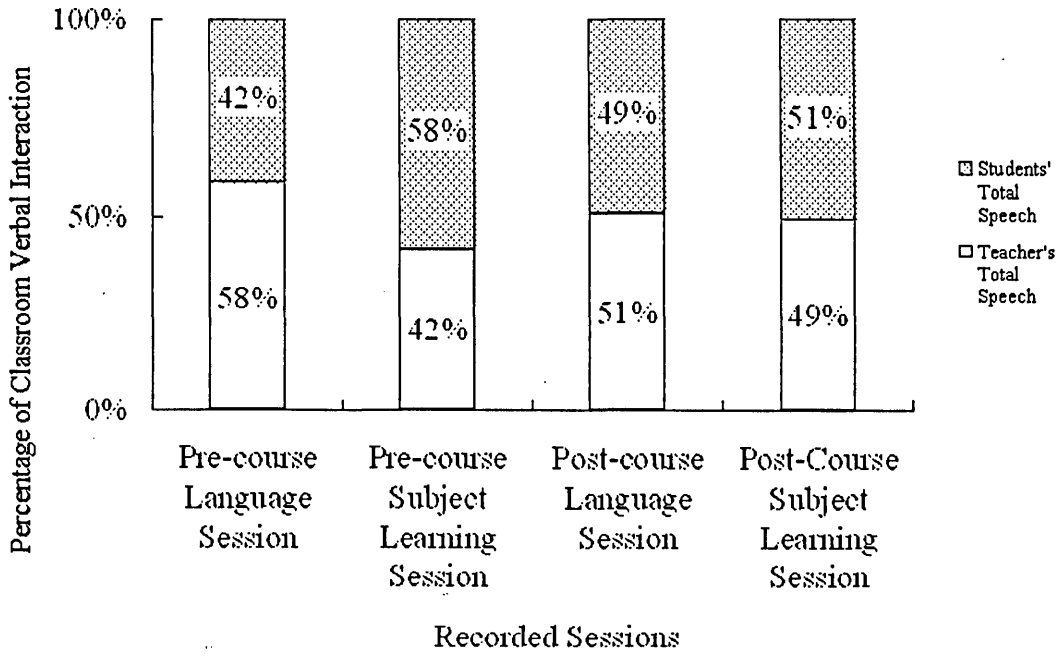
demonstrated one very important academic skill, note taking, and summarised the concept of measuring and putting the summary on the blackboard in exchanges 32 to 43. While the class was taking notes, some learners started to make fun of others and the teacher's drawing (see Exchanges 46 to 55 in Appendix 16, p.320). The teacher did not intervene until exchange 56 as they were all speaking the target language and their topic was still more or less related to the target teaching topic. The learners were allowed to continue 'showing off' from exchanges 57 to 67.

Appendix 16 Post-course Subject-learning Session - Maths class Episodes of Vocabulary Teaching & Topic Introduction (p.320) reveals that the teacher sometimes needed to focus on linguistic forms in order to precede content teaching as the target language serves the function of content carrier. Nevertheless, it is sometimes difficult to draw a line of distinction between content and language teaching. In this extract, it was clear though that some learners did not grasp the concept of measuring and could not measure (please see Exchanges 85 to 89 in Appendix 16) due to failing to comprehend the content.

4.3 Summary of the Findings and Implications

The recorded sessions, pre-course subject-learning session, pre-course language input session, post-course subject-learning session, and post-course language input session, demonstrated how the classroom verbal interaction diverged significantly across time and the foci of the lessons, namely on language and content knowledge. Figure 4.3 demonstrates the ratio changes of the teacher's and the learners' total turn taking in the four recorded sessions. The teacher and learners shared more or less the same turn in terms of verbal interaction. However, there is a difference between language input sessions and subject-learning sessions. The learners tended to contribute more in terms of speech frequency in both subject-learning sessions. Furthermore, as noted in session 4.1 (see Figure 4.2 The Learners' Speech: Pre- and Post-course comparison, p.164 and Appendix 13, p.312 to Appendix 16 p. 320for review), the learners produced more complex language structures in the subject-learning sessions.

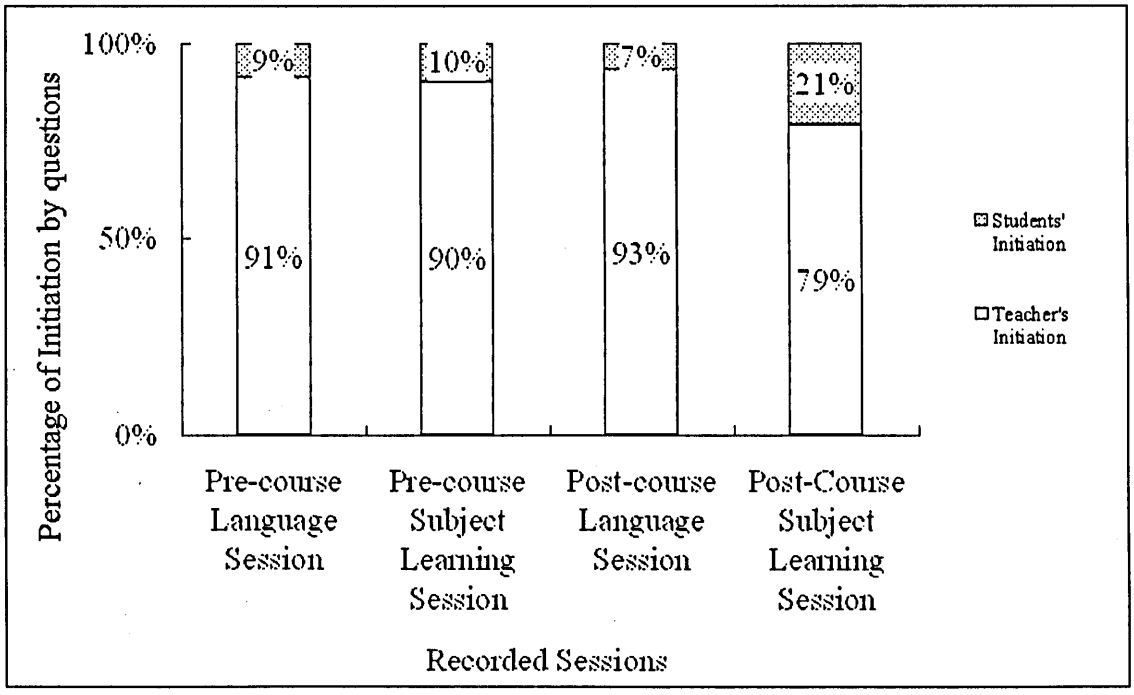
Figure 4.3 Classroom Verbal Interaction -the Teacher vs. the Learners



Nonetheless the teacher dominated the overall classroom verbal interaction in both language input sessions and subject-learning sessions. This is evident from the ratio of the

teacher and the learners' initiation during the classroom activities. Figure 4.4 presents the teacher's and the learners' initiations by the use of questions in the recorded sessions. The teacher's use of questions accounted for more than 90% of initiations during the pre-course language input session and subject-learning session, in which the learners initiated a little more in the subject-learning session than in the language input session. By the end of the programme, at week 6, the initiations were still mostly dominated by the teacher, which is shown as post-course language session and post-course subject-learning session in Figure 4.4. However, there is a big difference between the learners' initiations in the recorded post-course sessions. The learners accounted for significantly more initiations in the subject-learning (21%) session than in the language input session (7%).

Figure 4.4 The Ratio Changes of the Teacher's and the Learners' Initiations by Questions



The learners tended to use more complex and longer sentences in both pre- and post-course subject learning sessions compared with the pre- and post-course language input sessions. Such big differences observed in the recorded sessions, namely more active learner participation, more complex use of the target language and more cognitive learning

involved in the subject-learning sessions, indicate that in the use of content elements a language classroom generated more active participation from the learners in terms of quality and frequency.

Besides providing validation of the use of CBLI in the current study, the above findings could have further implications for the teacher's development. By shifting the focus in an English language classroom, namely from form-focused to meaning-focused, the teacher could easily create more opportunities for learners to negotiate meanings and encourage more dialogical verbal interaction in a language classroom. Numerous studies have shown that teachers' awareness of their classroom language use can be effectively raised by watching their own performance from video tapes/classroom transcripts. The classroom recordings and particular findings can be used to raise the teacher's awareness on her classroom language use. This can be done just by simply showing the recordings or the transcripts o the teachers (see Appendix 13 Extract of Pre-course Language Input Session - Spelling Exercise, p.312, to Appendix 16 Post-course Subject-learning Session - Maths class Episodes of Vocabulary Teaching & Topic Introduction, p.320).

Chapter 5 Data Presentation Analysis and Discussion - Part II

The main focus of Chapter 5 is on data presentation, analysis and discussion of quantitative and qualitative data obtained from the research instruments employed in this study in order to answer the research question in this study. The learners' language development during the summer programme will be examined in Section 5.1. Section 5.2 focuses on the pre- and post-course Learning Motivation Questionnaire (LMQ) results backed up with the teacher's observations of the learners' changes and development over the six week summer programme. Finally, Section 5.3 presents a cross-examination of the correlations amongst the changes of motivation attributes and the learners' language development.

Assessment results, both the Reading and Writing Self-assessment (RWSA) and Rapid Profile (RP) test showed that the learners have improved in their reading and writing skills and oral proficiency after studying the programme. These results are also backed by the teacher's observations about the learners' development. Pre- and post-course comparison of RWSA results demonstrated that a) the learners' reading and writing skills have improved and b) the learners had more self-confidence in performing the tested reading and writing tasks after the summer programme. The ability of most of the learners to process the target language in a real-time setting also improved as the comparison of pre- and post-course RP tests results revealed that 64% of the class improved for one or more levels in their RP tests, whereas nearly one third of them improved less than one level when scoring against the RP scale which consists of six levels.

There were variations between the seven tested pre- and post-course motivation attributes in LMQ, language attitude, subject-preference, positive-worded statements,

negative-worded statements, motivations of learning English, parental support, and classroom anxiety, whilst some correlations amongst these attributes were also identified. In these the learners' negative feelings toward English learning (negative-worded statements), classroom anxiety and self-confidence, showed significant changes in pre- and post-course LMQ and RWSA results.

It is concluded that the summer programme has enhanced the learners' negative feelings towards learning English and there was more classroom anxiety, apart from gaining self-confidence in their ability to use the target language, as the learners' scores increased on classroom anxiety, negative-worded statements and self-confidence, in which self-confidence was correlated to proficiency levels. Nonetheless it is inconclusive to say the summer programme made the subjects feel less positive towards English learning as the findings showed there was no decrease in the subjects' post-course scores for positive-worded statements. The subjects showed increased interest in other content-subject learning, Science, Maths, Art and Social Studies, in the school. However, the results show there was no significant change in the motivational attribute of English learning motivations.

5.1 Learners' Language Development

The learners' language development was assessed by means of a) Rapid Profile (RP), and b) self-assessment questionnaires (RWSA) in order to determine if and how the summer programme helped the learners' acquisition of the target language. The teacher's account of the learners' language development throughout the summer programme supports the findings of the assessments carried out in this study.

RP technique (Mackey, 1991) can be used to assess and measure language learners' development according to their abilities to process the target languages in real-time settings. In the present study, the learners' exchanges were recorded when individuals were doing one-to-one activities in an informal setting. In order to obtain absolutely accurate results of learners' English proficiency levels, all the exchanges were fully transcribed and analysed by using RP software. Further, to ensure a high inter-rater reliability, all the data were analysed by the same rater.

5.1.1 The Learners' Speaking Abilities

The number of learners achieving the lowest proficiency level in this class decreased while the number of the high achievers increased by the end of the programme. The learners' pre- and post-course RP tests, which are displayed in **Table 5.1** (p.184), have shown impressive improvement. As shown in **Table 5.1** (p.184), the majority of the class, 36.8%, was able to produce RP Level-2 sentence structure, S-V-O (e.g. '*They are eating*' and '*People are buying things*'), whilst the least proficient group of students accounted for 13% of the class by the end of the summer programme. A further 36.4% of the class was able to produce RP Level-3 structures, such as forming wh-questions and possessive 's' (e.g. '*Where did the tree go?*', '*because it's the big dinosaur's egg*'). In contrast, only 4.5% of them remained in Level 3 at the end of the programme. The most proficient students during the pre-course test accounted for 27.3% of the class and achieved RP Level-4, which indicated they were able to produce Copula S (x) and wh-copula S(x) structures (e.g. '*Where is a boat*?'). By the end of the programme, the majority of the class, 59.1%, had achieved RP Level-4 in their RP tests, while nearly a quarter of the class could produce RP Level-5 structures, for illustration, 'Aux-2nd-?' (e.g. '*Does you know which boy is gone*?') and 3rd person singular 's'.

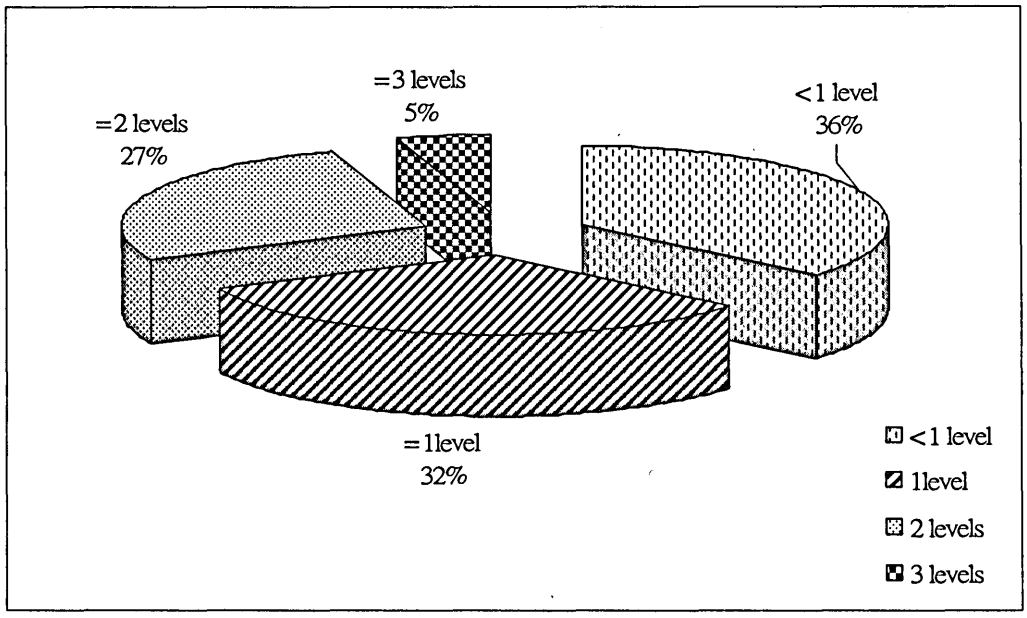
Table 5.1 Post-course Proficiency Test Results

RP Level	Student Number		Percent	
	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-Test	Post-test
2	8	3	36.8%	13.6%
3	8	1	36.8%	4.5%
4	6	13	27.3%	59.1%
5	0	5	0%	22.7%
Valid Total	22	22	100%	100%

The overall improvement of the class demonstrated a normal distribution. **Figure 5.1** illustrates the distribution of the learners' levels of improvement. Around 60% of the pupils had improved one to two levels. About one third of the class improved one level when scoring against the RP scale whereas the other one third achieved two or three levels

higher than their pre-course tests. The rest of the class, 36%, improved less than one level in their RP tests.

Figure 5.1 Distribution of Learners' Amount of Improvement



The result of the pair sample t-test, shown as **Table 5.2**, further validated that the students had gained improvements throughout the programme, at a significant level of 0.001. On average, they had moved up one level. However, due to the lack of control group in the current study, the significance of improvement should be treated with caution as it could be misleading.

Table 5.2 Proficiency Changes: Pre- vs. Post-course RP Tests

N=22	Paired Differences		Sig.
	Mean	Std. Deviation	
RP Level	-1.0000	.92582	.001**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Extract 4 and **Extract 5** below give a fuller picture of how learners' language developed over the six-week CBLI programme. **Extract 4** is derived from Subject D, who

is one of the least-proficient learners' pre-course language test while telling a story from a set of pictures (see Appendix 12 Story Telling - Sequenced Pictures, p.309). During the language test, Subject D was able to produce Level 2 structures, e.g. SVO, -ing. However, he did not respond to the question-formation task (see Appendix 9 Close Gap Activity - Park Field Trip, p.305)

Extract 4 Example of Learners' Production during Pre-course Language Testing

D: big dinosaur want to eat the small dinosaur (SVO, Level 2)

T: what is this small dinosaur doing?

D: eat the egg (SVO, Level 2)

T: what happened next then?

D: the small dinosaur is running and big dinosaur want to eat. (SVO, Level 2)

T: what happened at the end?

D: small dinosaur running into his home (SVO, Level 2)

Extract 5 is derived from the same subject's, subject D, post-course language test. Although he was not able to produce questions in his pre-course question formation task as noted above. He was able to produce level 4 questions in his post-course question formation task (see Appendix 10 Student-Teacher Interview, p.306)

Extract 5 Example of Learners' Production during Post-course Language Testing

D: what is your telephone number? (Wh-copula S(X), Level 4)

T: my telephone number is 3332555.

D: what is ..this? (Wh-copula S(X), Level 4)

.....

D: you like swimming? (SVO?, Level2)

T: Yes, I love swimming, but I can't swim.

D: what time do you eat the dinner? (Aux-2nd-?, Level 5)

T: I eat dinner at 7 o'clock.

D: what is your favourite colour? (Wh-copula S(X), Level4)

T: my favourite colour is pink today... just like your shirt.

From above extracts, it is evident that this particular learner, who was one of the less proficient ones, improved from Level 2 to Level 4, namely the ability to generate questions in real-time situation.

The learners' proficiency levels and their amount of improvement are significantly correlated. **Table 5.3** displays the correlations between learners' pre- and post- intervention RP levels and the amount of improvement. The learners who started the course with lower proficiency levels were more likely to make more improvement than those who started the course with higher proficiency levels. The learners' levels of English proficiency at the end of the course also strongly correlated to their amount of improvement. The learners who improved more were more likely to be those who achieved higher levels of proficiency at the end of the programme.

Table 5.3 Correlations between Learners' Proficiency Levels and Amount of Improvement

N =22		Pre-course Test	Post-course Test	Amount of Development
Pre-course Test	Pearson Correlation	1	.435*	-.444
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.043	.039*
Post-course Test	Pearson Correlation		1	.614**
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.002
Amount of Development	Pearson Correlation			1
	Sig. (2-tailed)			

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The negative correlation between the learners' pre-course proficiency levels and their amount of improvement might seem unusual. However, if the programme curriculum is taken into account, the results are not surprising. The provided curriculum was targeting RP Level-4 and Level-5 structures (see Appendix 1 Summer Smart Table of Content, p.266 and Appendix 2 Summer Programme Scope & Sequence, p. 288, for review). Hence, it is understandable why the learners with higher proficiency levels did not improve as much as the less proficient learners since they were much closer to the target RP level at the beginning of the summer programme.

5.1.2 The Learners' Reading and Writing Abilities

As with their speaking abilities, the learners showed significant improvements in their reading and writing abilities in the target language by the end of the programme. There is a significant difference between the learners' pre- and post-course Reading and Writing Self-Assessments (RWSA, cf. Appendix 3 Reading and Writing Self-Assessment, p.293). However, the significance has mainly fallen on the more advanced writing tasks (in test items 13-17) and more advanced reading tasks, in test items 8 and item 9. The learners scored themselves significantly lower at the end of the programme than at the beginning of it. This indicates that learners considered themselves more capable of carrying out the more advanced reading and writing tasks presented by the end of the programme. Nonetheless, due to the lack of a control group as noted above, it could only be determined that the significant de-grading of the learners self-assessment was valid in terms of comparing their pre- and post-test.

Table 5.4 (p.189) displays detailed results of the pre- and post-course self-assessments (SA). Pair 1 indicates the comparison between all items related to reading skills as a whole in pre-course RWSA and Pair 3 represents items related to advanced reading skills only: item 8 reading a short story with the teacher's help and item 9, reading a short story independently. The reason for analysing the test items in two sets was to separate those skills that were required before starting the summer programme and the skills to be developed during the summer programme. There was no significant change when looking at the reading test items as a whole. However there is a significant change in the sub-set, item 8 and item 9. Apparently, learners had realised that they had a lot more to learn after being exposed to extended reading materials during the summer programme.

Table 5.4 Improvement of Reading and Writing Abilities: Pre vs. Post-course RWSA

Pair	Test Items	Paired Differences		Sig.
		Mean	Std. Deviation	
1	Sum of Reading Tasks	-1.7391	5.1098	.117
2	Sum of Writing Tasks	-6.2608	7.3001	.001**
3	Basic Reading Tasks:1-7	-.73913	4.31927	.421
4	Advanced Reading Tasks: 8to9	-1.0000	2.2563	.045*
5	Basic Writing Tasks 10to12	-.13043	1.3916	.657
6	Advanced Writing Tasks 13to17	-6.1304	7.1114	.001**

** Difference is significant at the 0.01 level.
* Difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The learners had scored themselves significantly lower at the end of the six-week programme than at the beginning which indicates that there is a significant development in their writing skills. Pair 2 stands for the paired-sample t-test result of the learners' pre- and post-course writing SA. Like the reading SA results, there was no significant change in writing in terms of more basic skills, which are computed in pair 4, from item 10 to item 12, ability to write capital and lower case letters and their names. However, during the post-course test, the learners had scored themselves significantly lower than pre-course test on their more advanced writing skills, from item 13, able to write a complete sentence to item 17, able to write a short story with pictures.

To sum up, the learners had scored themselves lower in both reading and writing proficiency at the end of the summer programme than at the beginning of it. Although, when looking at reading SA as a whole there was no significant change between before and after the summer programme, there was a significant scoring down in more advanced reading skills, items 8 and 9, which were the skills the learners were expected to acquire during the summer programme. Both reading and writing SA results indicate that learners,

after undergoing the CBLI programme, may have become more aware of their proficiency levels and their needs of reading and writing skills.

The teacher's observation supported the findings of the RWSA, particularly on the tested writing tasks. During the post-course interview she pointed out that the learners were particularly interested in creative writing by the end of the programme and 'everybody gets really excited about writing class...it's like writing class starting with chaos...but they were throwing their ideas around' and some of them 'wrote novels' and 'it's amazing seeing what the kids come up with'. This statement totally contrasted with the teacher's point of view about how the learners' attitudes were towards writing class at the pre-course interview. In the pre-course interview (cf. Appendix 17 Summary of Pre-session Teacher's Interview, p.323), the teacher expressed that the learners 'hate writing class... every time I ask them to write down a word they are like 'where teacher where?' ...and I have to stand on top of them to get them finish the writing'.

Although the RWSA results indicated that the learners significantly their reading and writing skills, they need to be treated with caution. As noted in earlier sections (see 3.3.3.2 Reading and Writing Self-Assessments, p.126; 3.7.4 Language Assessments, p.156), the use of RWSA was more a reliable measurement of the learners' self-confidence than a representation of their actual reading and writing abilities. For that reason, the results of RWSA should be treated as representation of the learners' actual reading and writing abilities. Nevertheless, reading and writing skills were not the primary learning agenda of the six-week CBLI programme (see Appendix 2 Summer Programme Scope & Sequence, p.288). Hence it did not cause much concern in the current study. Instead, the result of RWSA was treated more as an indicator of the learners' self-confidence..

The findings of the RWSA have raised further concerns for using it to measure the subjects' reading and writing skills development. The RWSA might have yielded data that is perhaps problematic. As acknowledged in a previous section, 3.7.4 Language

Assessment, the use of self-assessment with young learners, particularly the ones with lower-proficiency, can be problematic. Learners with a lower proficiency level have a tendency to over score themselves (Harris, 1997; Ross, 1998; Shameem, 1998). Further, younger learners also tend to be reluctant to admit things they can not do well.

Due to the lack of reliability and validity of the RWSA data, its results could not be used to claim that the subjects' reading and writing improved after undergoing the 6-week CBLI programme in the current study. Hence it is recommended that an appropriate reliability and validity check should be incorporated in future studies if self-assessment is to be used as a reference-criteria test. Additionally, an investigation should be undertaken into measuring EFL young learners' writing and reading skills development.

5.1.3 Summary of the Learners' Language Development

The learners improved notably in all tested aspects of their target language, speaking proficiency, reading and writing abilities. By the end of the programme, most of the learners demonstrated better speaking ability when carrying out the RP test speaking tasks and also scored themselves considerably higher in the post-course RWSA.

Nevertheless, there was not sufficient evidence to suggest that the learners' self-assessment of their reading and writing abilities was accurate, neither was there evidence that suggested otherwise. When looking at the class as a whole, significant correlations could not be found in either pre-course or post-course between RWSA and RP as shown in **Table 5.5** (p.193) and **Table 5.6** (p.194). The results showed no correlations between their RP test and RWSA. This could be explained by two possibilities. First, the learners' speaking, reading and writing abilities developed simultaneously, however not necessarily with corresponding speed as some learners could be much faster at picking up speaking skills, but not as quick at developing their writing and reading skills.

The second explanation is that the learners could not accurately assess their own reading and writing ability in the target language. Although either set of results, pre-course and post-course, showed significant correlations, the post-course set of results did show a better correlation between RWSA and RP. This result is consistent with other research findings on the use of SA (Blanche & Merino, 1989; Allwright, 1988; Pierce et al., 1993; Ross, 1998; and Shameem, 1998). Learners with higher proficiency levels are able to assess themselves more accurately than those with lower proficiency levels.

Table 5.5 Correlations between Pre-course SA and RP Test Results

Pre-course Self-Assessment: Reading & Writing Tasks		Basic Reading	Adv. Reading	Basic Writing	Adv. Writing	Overall Reading	Overall Writing	RP Level
Basic Reading	Pearson Correlation	1	.322	.402	.057	**.790****	**.436***	.086
	Sig.		.134	.057	.796	.000	.037	.704
	N		23	23	23	23	23	22
Adv. Reading	Pearson Correlation		1	.144	.224	**.821****	.370	.039
	Sig.			.512	.305	.000	.082	.865
	N			23	23	23	23	22
Basic Writing	Pearson Correlation			1	.095	.342	.402	-.023
	Sig.				.668	.110	.057	.919
	N				23	23	23	22
Adv. Writing	Pearson Correlation				1	.184	.198	-.203
	Sig.					.401	.365	.365
	N					23	23	22
Overall Reading	Pearson Correlation					1	**.543****	.052
	Sig.						.007	.819
	N						23	22
Overall Writing	Pearson Correlation						1	.032
	Sig.							.889
	N							22
RP Level	Pearson Correlation							1
	Sig.							
	N							

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Key:		
	Basic Reading	Basic Reading Tasks (Test Item 1-7)
	Adv. Reading	Advanced Reading Tasks (Test Item 8-9)
	Basic Writing	Basic Writing Tasks (Test Item 10-13
	Adv. Writing	Advanced Writing Tasks (Test Item 14-17)
	Overall Reading	Sum of All Reading Tasks (Test Item 1-9)
	Overall Writing	Sum of All Writing Tasks (Test Item 10-17)

Table 5.6 Correlations between Post-course SA and RP Test Results

Post-Course Self-Assessment: Reading & Writing Tasks		Basic Reading	Adv. Reading	Basic Writing	Adv. Writing	Overall Reading	Overall Writing	RP Level
Basic Reading	Pearson Correlation	1	.486*	.595**	.429*	.982**	.582**	.233
	Sig.	.	.019	.003	.041	.000	.004	.296
	N	23	23	23	23	23	23	22
Adv. Reading	Pearson Correlation		1	.531**	.549**	.643**	.639**	.059
	Sig.		.	.009	.007	.001	.001	.795
	N		23	23	23	23	23	22
Basic Writing	Pearson Correlation			1	.413	.637**	.756**	.239
	Sig.			.	.050	.001	.000	.284
	N			23	23	23	23	22
Adv. Writing	Pearson Correlation				1	.496*	.908**	-.053
	Sig.				.	.016	.000	.814
	N				23	23	23	22
Overall Reading	Pearson Correlation					1	.649**	.218
	Sig.					.	.001	.331
	N					23	23	22
Overall Writing	Pearson Correlation						1	.072
	Sig.						.	.751
	N						23	22
RP Level	Pearson Correlation							1
	Sig.							.
	N							22

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Key:		
	Basic Reading	Basic Reading Tasks (Test Item 1-7)
	Adv. Reading	Advanced Reading Tasks (Test Item 8-9)
	Basic Writing	Basic Writing Tasks (Test Item 10-13
	Adv. Writing	Advanced Writing Tasks (Test Item 14-17)
	Overall Reading	Sum of All Reading Tasks (Test Item 1-9)
	Overall Writing	Sum of All Writing Tasks (Test Item 10-17)

5.2 Learners' Learning Motivation Attributes Changes

The 7 tested pre- and post-course motivation attributes in LMQ, language attitude, subject-preference, positive-worded statements, negative-worded statements, motivations for learning English, parental support, and classroom anxiety showed different amount of changes. **Table 5.7** (p.196) displays statistical changes on the results of the pre- and post-course LMQ. With a maximum score of 1 for each category, except self-confidence which is 102, the results show that this class had very wide ranges of motivation attributes. Further, some of these attributes changed across time, which means the summer programme had an impact on them - however not on every one of them. The most diverse one is classroom anxiety with a range of 0.66 and a mean of 0.8116, while the least diverse one is other motivations of learning English language which had a range of 0.42 with a mean of 0.7704 in the pre-course test. Both ranges had narrowed by the end of the programme.

The learners' post-course report on language attitudes, subject preferences, positive-worded statements, parent support and other motives of learning English remained more or less the same compared with the results in the pre-course LMQ. The most dramatic mean change within the category is for the negative-worded statements, which was an increase from 0.417 to 0.5217, more than 10% of the total category score, with a range of 0.80. This indicates that, on average, the learners disliked English learning more after the summer programme than before it. Furthermore, the second biggest category increase on class average is classroom anxiety, which increased from 0.4584 to 0.5466, nearly 10% of increase. This shows that, on average, the class has higher classroom anxiety after the summer programme than before. Nevertheless, it is impossible to explain these two interesting increases of motivation attributes without further analysis. Hence, in a later

section, I will be examining the correlations between the six motivation attributes by regrouping the learners with different levels of motivation attributes.

Table 5.7 Learners' Learning Motivation Attributes Changes

N = 23	Mean		Std. Deviation		Minimum		Maximum	
	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-
Language Attitude	.8116	.7913	.18439	.17239	.37	.37	1.00	1.00
Subject Preference	.7500	.8087	.16922	.16001	.40	.5	1.00	1.00
Positive-worded Statements	.8557	.8087	.12402	.17600	.48	.52	1.00	1.00
Negative-worded Statements	.4174	.5217	.16834	.20090	.20	.20	.84	1.00
Class Anxiety	.4584	.5466	.15708	.16822	.20	.20	.86	.83
Parent Support	.7478	.7623	.15822	.09656	.40	.60	1.00	.93
Motivation	.7704	.7591	.13265	.13369	.58	.52	1.00	.96
Self-Confidence*	89.39	94.39	10.28	6.49	62.00	75.00	102.0	102.0

* Derived from RWSA

5.2.1 Correlations amongst Pre-course Motivation Attributes

There are some significant correlations amongst the six categories in LMQ, self-confidence which is derived from RWSA results and the learners' language proficiency levels. As discovered in the previous section, RWSA results do provide a very strong indicator for the learners' degree of self-confidence in their language abilities (Masgoret et al., 2001). Therefore, its correlations with motivation attributes are also analyzed. **Table 5.8** (p.200) presents the correlations between the motivation attributes in LMQ, RWSW results, and RP test results.

The learners' language attitude has a strong positive correlation with their interest in other subject learning (shown as Subject Preference in **Table 5.8**, p.200), positive feelings towards English lessons (shown as Positive-worded Statements in **Table 5.8**, p.200) and other motives for learning English language (shown as Motivation in **Table 5.8**, p.200). The learners with a positive language attitude towards English also tended to be fond of learning English language and more interested in other subject learning at the same time. This could be because certain learners reacted positively towards schooling when the others felt less settled-in as the pre-course LMQ was taken in the second week of the course, which was the learners' first time in primary schooling. The pupils may have found primary schooling new and exciting and consequently were very keen on all subjects they were learning, including English language and things associated with it. On the other hand, the pupils who were not as motivated would tend to be not enjoying learning any subjects and felt less positive about English language learning.

The pupils' subject preferences are significantly and positively correlated with their self-confidence on their writing skills. The learners who had better self-confidence on their writing skills had a tendency of being motivated in other subject learning. This could be because they felt themselves 'capable' and as a result they liked all subjects. Learners

could enjoy learning certain subjects because they are good at them or they consider themselves good at the subjects. The learners were encouraged by this sense of achievement, and then came to like the subjects. However it cannot be determined which one causes which.

In addition, the attribute of the learners' subject preference is negatively correlated with their negative feelings towards English language learning. This is a sign to say that the learners were giving consistent answers toward all subjects. The learners who did not like English language learning and scored negative-worded statements highly also scored down on other subject learning which included subjects of English language, Maths, Science, Art and Social Studies. These learners did not enjoy learning as a whole rather than not enjoying any individual subjects.

The attribute of the learners' positive feelings towards English language learning (shown as Positive-worded statements in **Table 5.8** (p.200) is significantly and positively correlated to their attribute of other motives in learning English language. This is an expected result as the learners who had strong motives for learning English would naturally have positive feelings towards English language learning. Apart from being positively correlated to the category of other motives of learning English, the attribute of the learners' positive feelings is also negatively correlated to their negative feelings towards English language learning (shown as Negative-worded Statements in **Table 5.8** (p.200) at a significant level of 0.017.

The learners who had higher classroom anxiety had a tendency to score themselves lower on their reading competence as the attribute of classroom anxiety is negatively correlated to the learners' self-confidence in their reading skills at a significant level of 0.025.

Although these two variables are highly correlated, it cannot be determined which one causes which. The learners who were highly anxious might feel they were not

proficient in English reading. However, one could argue that because the learners had low self-confidence in their reading proficiency so they had high anxiety in language classes. Additionally, the learners' class anxiety has a strong positive correlation to their feelings towards English language learning (negative-worded statements). Nevertheless the p value, which is 0.078, is not good enough to be considered as significant.

Table 5.8 Correlations amongst motivation attributes in Pre-course LMQ and RWSA

Motivation Attributes & Language Assessments		Language Attitude	Subject Preference	Positive-worded Statements	Negative-worded Statements	Class Anxiety	Motivation	RP Level	Reading SA	Writing SA
Language Attitude	Pearson Correlation	1	**.481***	**.501***	-.296	-.056	**.515***	.026	.236	.018
	Sig.	.	.020	.015	.171	.800	.012	.907	.279	.935
	N	23	23	23	23	23	23	22	23	23
Subject Preference	Pearson Correlation		1	.108	**-.491***	-.227	.136	.031	.374	.474*
	Sig.		.	.623	.017	.297	.537	.891	.079	.022
	N		23	23	23	23	23	22	23	23
Positive-worded Statements	Pearson Correlation			1	**-.446***	-.052	**.474***	-.272	.011	-.205
	Sig.			.	.033	.815	.022	.221	.962	.349
	N			23	23	23	23	22	23	23
Negative-worded Statements	Pearson Correlation				1	.374	-.163	.308	.001	-.357
	Sig.				.	.078	.457	.163	.997	.095
	N				23	23	23	22	23	23
Class Anxiety	Pearson Correlation					1	.075	.271	**-.452***	-.318
	Sig.					.	.732	.222	.030	.139
	N					23	23	22	23	23
Motivation	Pearson Correlation						1	.224	.256	-.092
	Sig.						.	.316	.238	.675
	N						23	22	23	23
RP Level	Pearson Correlation							1	.052	-.198
	Sig.							.	.819	.377
	N							22	22	22
Reading SA	Pearson Correlation								1	.258
	Sig.								.	.235
	N								23	23
Writing SA	Pearson Correlation									1

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The pre-course interview reveals that the teacher has observed that the learners appeared to be much more participative in subject-learning sessions than language input sessions as she comments 'Yeah! They were more excited about the science class.' when the interviewer asked her if she noticed any differences between subject-learning sessions and language input sessions. She also pointed out that one of the more capable learners 'doesn't just repeat information... He understands it. He's transferred ideas' (cf. **Appendix 17** Summary of Pre-session Teacher's Interview, p. 323). She then further exemplified 'like today one of our vocabulary words for the story is den. We talked about how a rabbit lives in its den. And then we talked about where is a den, how you make a den...whatever to do with a den. And then, and then what other animals live in a den and then we did a we drew a picture like what it is a den, animals underground, and then we drew a picture of it; like a bunny home underground. And Ken drew a **cave** with a bear in it. And he's absolutely right...He can take information and transfer it'. This viewpoint echoes one of the ultimate goals of CBLI programmes, enabling language learners to transfer their knowledge into the use of target language.

In addition, the teacher expressed the view that some learners were not as focused or interested in learning during classes was due to a lack of maturity rather than lack of motivation, saying 'I think it's just lack of maturity, like emotionally, psychologically ...not aware that there's lot of people in that room that he is noisy, he's wrestling around, bothering other people and he's jacking...it's a maturity thing, too...just lack of focus' (cf. Appendix 17 Summary of Pre-session Teacher's Interview, p. 323 and Appendix 18 Summary of Post-course Teacher's Interview, p. 327). Such diverse degrees of interest in learning reveal that some learners were better motivated than the others even just at the beginning of the summer programme.

5.2.2 Correlations amongst Post-course Motivation Attributes

The post-course LMQ were collected during week 6, the last week of the summer programme. The correlations amongst the motivation attributes have decreased dramatically. **Table 5.9** (p.205) displays correlations amongst the motivation attributes and learners' proficiency levels. The only correlation remaining unchanged is between the learners' attribute of language attitudes and their subject preferences. There is still a strong positive correlation between the learners' language attitudes and subject preferences, when the attribute of their language attitude does not correlate to their positive feelings towards English language learning any more. This indicates that learners who enjoy learning all subjects still keep a very positive language attitude towards English, as they did pre-course. However, the attributes of language attitude and the learners' positive feelings towards English learning (positive-worded statements) do not correlate as they did in the pre-course LMQ. This means learners distinguished enjoying English language learning from liking the language and the culture behind it.

The most interesting correlation is between the learners' positive feelings towards English learning (positive-worded statements) and the result of the learners' post-course RP levels which is negative at a significant level of 0.019. This reveals that the learners with higher proficiency did not find learning English 'fun' or 'cool'. Further, there is also a negative correlation between the category of their negative feelings towards English learning (shown as negative-worded statements in **Table 5.9** (p.205) and their proficiency level (shown as RP levels **Table 5.9** (p.205) at a significant level of 0.057. These two correlations indicate that learners with higher proficiency levels tend to be emotionally more neutral towards English learning while

the least proficient learners possess stronger emotions, either positive or negative ones, towards English language learning. This phenomenon might be explained by the correlation between the attributes of motives of learning English and classroom anxiety.

The learners' attributes of motives for learning English and classroom anxiety are positively correlated at a significant level of 0.001. The learners with stronger motives of English learning are more likely to have higher classroom anxiety. The high classroom anxiety resulted from strong motives for English learning, as better motivated learners were keener on learning everything and being perfect. As a result, they became more anxious than the learners possessing neutral emotions.

In the post-course LMQ, the learners did not project their views of their self-confidence in their reading and writing abilities onto subject preferences nor on classroom anxiety as they did in pre-course LMQ. In addition, their reading and writing self-confidence have a strong positive correlation, which is contrary to the pre-course results.

In the second interview, after the learners had received 6-weeks of the intervention, the teacher still thought that subject-learning sessions excited the learners more than ordinary language input sessions, adding that while the language sessions, particularly the phonics class, have become routine, the learners 'will be excited about new stuff' in subject-learning sessions and 'it'll never become a routine' (cf. Appendix 18 Summary of Post-course Teacher's Interview, p. 327). She pointed out that the learners were particularly interested in hands-on art work and creative writing and 'everybody gets really excited about writing class...it's like writing class starting with chaos...but they were throwing their ideas around' and some of them 'wrote novels' and 'it's amazing seeing what the kids come up with'. This statement totally contrasted with the teacher's point of view about how their learners' attitudes were

towards the writing class at the pre-course interview. In the pre-course interview, the teacher expressed that the learners 'hate writing class... every time I ask them to write down a word they are like' where teacher where?' ...and I have to stand on top of them to get them finish the writing' (cf. Appendix 17 Summary of Pre-session Teacher's Interview, p. 323).

Nevertheless, the teacher also emphasised that it was important to keep language input sessions as routine as they were, especially for the learners with lower proficiency. The teacher further explained that the learners did not mind routine work as 'they're grade one. So they're (routines) like fussy and new', besides 'they like doing things are concrete. They like it when they can see the end product at the end and that is really satisfying to them'.

Table 5.9 Correlations amongst motivation attributes in Post-course LMQ and RWSA

Motivation Attributes & Language Assessments		Language Attitude	Subject Preference	Positive-worded Statements	Negative-worded Statements	Class Anxiety	Motivation	RP Level	Reading SA	Writing SA
Language Attitude	Pearson Correlation	1	**.522***	.372	-.323	-.015	.159	.111	-.003	-.264
	Sig.	.	.011	.080	.132	.945	.469	.624	.990	.224
	N	23	23	23	23	23	23	22	23	23
Subject Preference	Pearson Correlation		1	.255	-.408	.141	.170	-.087	-.251	-.280
	Sig.		.	.239	.053	.521	.437	.701	.248	.195
	N		23	23	23	23	23	22	23	23
Positive-worded Statements	Pearson Correlation			1	.107	.239	.357	**-.496***	-.061	-.269
	Sig.			.	.629	.272	.094	.019	.782	.215
	N			23	23	23	23	22	23	23
Negative-worded Statements	Pearson Correlation				1	.217	.075	-.412	-.031	.226
	Sig.				.	.321	.735	.057	.890	.299
	N				23	23	23	22	23	23
Class Anxiety	Pearson Correlation					1	**.659****	-.227	-.093	-.034
	Sig.					.	.001	.310	.672	.879
	N					23	23	22	23	23
Motivation	Pearson Correlation						1	-.288	-.078	.076
	Sig.						.	.194	.724	.732
	N						23	22	23	23
RP Level	Pearson Correlation							1	.218	.072
	Sig.							.	.331	.751
	N							22	22	22
Reading SA	Pearson Correlation								1	**.649****
	Sig.								.	.001
	N								23	23

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

5.3 Cross examination: How did the learners' motivation attributes change?

In this section, I will be examining the motivation attributes with significant changes after receiving the summer programme. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test will be computed in order to find out which of the learners' responses towards the tested motivation attributes have changed significantly throughout the programme. After identifying the significantly changed motivation attributes, further analysis will be carried out in order to find out whose motivation attributes have changed the most and how they have changed.

The learners' motivation attributes of negative feelings towards English learning (shown as Negative-worded Statements), and classroom anxiety have changed significantly. The results of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test of pre- and post- LMQ are presented in **Table 5.10** (p.207) to provide a clearer picture of which and how the motivation attributes changed. Additionally, the learners' motivation attributes of positive-feeling towards English learning (shown as Positive-worded Statements) and how they like other school subject learning (shown as subject preferences) have also changed a lot. Nevertheless the significance levels only reached 0.161, and 0.125 as shown in **Table 5.10** (p.207). Hence the focus of later analysis will be on the ones with significant p values which are at least at the 0.05 level.

On average, the learners had more negative feelings towards learning English after receiving the summer programme, as the result of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test shows that 16 out of 23 learners had scored the attribute of negative-worded statements higher at the end of the summer programme than at the beginning. In addition, the learners reported higher classroom anxiety at the end of the programme

than at the beginning, as the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test result reveals that 14 out of 23 students scored their post-course classroom anxiety higher than the pre-course one at a significance level of 0.037 as presented in **Table 5.10**.

Table 5.10 Changes of Motivation Attributes: Pre vs. Post-Course

Pre- Vs. Post-course Comparison N=23		Number of Students	Z	Sig. (2-tailed)
Language Attitude	Post < Pre	11	-.464	.643
	Pos > Pre	8		
	Post = Pre	4		
Subject-Preference	Post < Pre	7	-1.532	.125
	Pos > Pre	11		
	Post = Pre	5		
Positive-Worded Statements	Post < Pre	11	-1.403	.161
	Pos > Pre	6		
	Post = Pre	6		
Negative-Worded	Post < Pre	4	-2.638	.008**
	Pos > Pre	16		
	Post = Pre	3		
Class Anxiety	Post < Pre	8	-2.081	.037*
	Pos > Pre	14		
	Post = Pre	1		
Parent Support	Post < Pre	8	-.524	.600
	Post > Pre	13		
	Post = Pre	2		
Motivation	Post < Pre	10	-.015	.988
	Pos > Pre	13		
	Post = Pre	0		

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Although **Table 5.10** shows that the learners have only shown significant changes on the categories of negative-worded statements and class anxiety, column 'N' reveals that in some of the motivation attributes the subjects have shown extreme differences among them. The two-polar results consequently lead to the 'insignificant

changes' when summing up subtotal in each category. Hence, more analysis will be carried out in the following sections to find out more details about the LMQ results.

5.3.1 Learners with High vs. Low scores on Negative-worded statements

The above section has revealed that there is a significant change of learners' scores, pre-course and post-course, regarding their negative feelings towards English learning (shown as Negative-worded Statements). More statistical work will be carried out to examine how learners' scores on negative-worded statements relate to their other motivation attributes. The data will be grouped into high and low score groups for comparison derived from the results of the Wilcoxon Rank Test displayed in **Table 5.10** (p.207). Learners whose post-course negative feelings towards English learning (negative-worded statements) scored lower than their pre-course one are assigned to the low group whereas those whose post-course negative feelings towards English learning (negative-worded statement) scored higher than their pre-course one are placed in the high group. Learners in the high negative-wording group dislike learning English more after the summer programme than before. Learners in the low negative-wording group had fewer negative feelings towards English learning after the summer programme.

Although these learners dislike learning English more than before they started the summer programme, their disfavour of English learning did not influence their classroom anxiety (only at a significance level of 0.22) nor their amount of improvement (only at a significance level of 0.40) as there are no significant correlations amongst them. **Table 5.11** (p.210) displays the correlations between motivation attributes and the proficiency levels of learners in the high negative-wording group. Within the group of learners with stronger negative feelings towards English learning (high negative-wording group), the learners' proficiency level which is shown as RP Level has a strong negative correlation with both their positive

feelings towards English learning (shown as positive-worded statements) and negative feelings towards English learning (shown as negative-worded statements) at significance levels of 0.02 and 0.04. This is to say the learners with better proficiency levels tend to have more neutral views on English language learning. On the other hand, learners with lower RP levels compared with their peers are more likely to have a strong view of English learning, either positively and negatively.

Table 5.11 Correlations amongst Post-course Motivation Attributes - Within High Negative-wording Group

Motivation Attributes & Language Development		Positive Worded	Negative Worded	Class Anxiety	Motivation	RP Level	Amount of Improvement
Positive-worded Statements	Pearson Correlation	1	0.47	0.38	0.41	-0.59	-0.37
	Sig.	.	0.07	0.15	0.12	**0.02***	0.17
	N	16	16	16	16	15	15
Negative-worded Statements	Pearson Correlation		1	0.33	0.15	-0.54	-0.24
	Sig.	.		0.22	0.57	**0.04***	0.4
	N		16	16	16	15	15
Class Anxiety	Pearson Correlation			1	0.8	-0.32	-0.56
	Sig.		.		**0.01****	0.25	**0.03***
	N			16	16	15	15
Motivation	Pearson Correlation				1	-0.44	-0.5
	Sig.			.		0.1	0.06
	N				16	15	15
RPLevel	Pearson Correlation					1	0.65
	Sig.				.		**0.01****
	N					15	15
Amount of Improvement	Pearson Correlation						1
	Sig.					.	
	N						15

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Learners' classroom anxiety is surprisingly correlated to their learning motivation at a significance level of 0.01 whereas there is no correlation between motivation and negative-worded statements (at significance level of 0.57). In other words, learners with lower learning motivation do not dislike learning English more than their peers who have higher learning motivation. Furthermore, learners who have higher classroom anxiety in the high negative-wording group also tend to have less improvement. The correlation is at a significance level of 0.03. This result shows consistency with other research: learners perform better when the classroom anxiety is low. The learners' amount of improvement has a strong positive correlation with their proficiency levels at the end of the programme, which is consistent with the findings in section 5.1 (see **Table 5.2 Proficiency Changes: Pre- vs. Post-course RP Tests** in p.185 for a review) at a significance level of 0.01.

However, there is a negative correlation between the amount of improvement and the English learning motivation at a significance level of 0.06. Nonetheless, this correlation did not reach the meaningful significance level. In addition, although the significance level is only 0.07, there is a positive correlation between negative-worded and positive-worded statements. Within this high negative-wording group, learners with higher scores of negative-worded statements also tend to score higher on positive-worded statements. This is to say these learners possess stronger views on English learning both positively and negatively.

Although all these learners reported more dislike of learning English at the end of the programme, there were also 9 out of 16 subjects who showed enjoyment of other subject learning more than before the programme. **Table 5.12** (p.212) shows how the motivation attributes of learners within the high negative-wording group changed before and after the summer programme.

Table 5.12 Changes of Motivation Attributes - Within High Negative-wording Group

Motivation Attributes and Proficiency Total N = 16		N	Z	Sig.
Subject Preference	Post < Pre	5	-.184	.854
	Pos > Pre	9		
	Post = Pre	2		
Class Anxiety	Post < Pre	6	-1.693	.090
	Pos > Pre	9		
	Post = Pre	1		
Motivation	Post < Pre	8	-.763	.445
	Pos > Pre	8		
	Post = Pre	0		
RP Level	Post < Pre	0	-2.333	**.020***
	Pos > Pre	8		
	Post = Pre	7		
	N	15		

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Half of the earners within this group, high negative-wording, also showed improvement in their learning motivation for English language. Nonetheless, 8 out of 16 subjects who reported lower motivation at the end of the programme. Additionally, the most interesting finding is that the learners did not gain language improvement on the basis of the RP test results, which are 8 out of 22 subjects, 7 of whom reported more disfavour of English language learning at the end of the programme.

Only 7 subjects are identified as scoring negative-worded statements lower at the end of the summer programme than before it. **Table 5.13** (p.213) presents the correlations between motivation attributes and the proficiency levels of learners in the low negative-wording group. The result shows no significant correlations between motivation attributes and the learners' proficiency levels and amount of improvement. Although, within the group, the learners did not show more disfavour of English

language learning after the summer programme, they did show changes in their other motivation attributes and proficiency levels, as shown in **Table 5.14** (p.214).

Table 5.13 Correlations amongst Post-course Motivation Attributes - Within Low Negative-wording Group

Motivation Attributes & Language Development		Positive Word	Negative Word	Class Anxiety	Motivation	RPLevel	Amount of Improvement
Positive-worded Statements	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.62	-0.26	0.26	-0.44	0.41
	Sig.	.	0.14	0.57	0.57	0.33	0.36
Negative-worded Statements	Pearson Correlation		1	-0.16	-0.33	0.30	-0.35
	Sig.	.		0.74	0.47	0.51	0.43
Class Anxiety	Pearson Correlation			1	0.18	0.39	0.31
	Sig.		.		0.69	0.39	0.50
Motivation	Pearson Correlation				1	0.46	0.66
	Sig.			.		0.30	0.11
RP Level	Pearson Correlation					1	0.59
	Sig.				.		0.16
Amount of Improvement	Pearson Correlation						1
	Sig.					.	

N=7

Generally, the learners showed a significant improvement in their proficiency levels. They also showed a higher degree of classroom anxiety at the end of the summer programme than at the beginning of it. In addition, there is a gain in learning motivation after receiving the summer programme.

Table 5.14 Changes of Motivation Attributes - Within Low Negative-wording Group

Motivation Attributes / Total N = 7		N	Z	Sig.
RP Level	Post < Pre	0	-2.333	**.020***
	Pos > Pre	6		
	Post = Pre	1		
Class Anxiety	Post < Pre	2	-1.693	.090
	Pos > Pre	5		
	Post = Pre	0		
Motivation	Post < Pre	2	-.769	.445
	Pos > Pre	5		
	Post = Pre	0		

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

5.3.2 Learners with High vs. Low scores on post-course classroom anxiety

There is a significant change of learners' scores on pre-course and post-course class anxiety based on the findings in **Table 5.10 Changes of Motivation Attributes: Pre vs. Post-Course** (p.207). More statistics will be carried out to examine how learners' class anxiety relates to their other motivation attributes. The data will be grouped into high and low score groups for comparison derived from the result of the Wilcoxon Rank Test displayed in **Table 5.10**. Learners who scored higher class anxiety at the end than at the beginning of the summer programme are grouped in high class anxiety. Learners who showed no change or decreased class anxiety at the end of the programme belong to the low anxiety group.

Within the group of learners with higher classroom anxiety after the programme (named High Class Anxiety Group), there are significant links amongst their negative feelings towards English learning (negative-worded statements), language attitude and their preference of other school subject learning (subject preference). **Table 5.15** (p.216) exhibits post-course correlations of motivation attributes and learners' amount of improvement within the high-class-anxiety group.

Learners who scored high on negative-worded statements also expressed low subject learning interests and a not very positive language attitude towards English. In addition, the learners' English learning motivation is strongly correlated to their class anxiety at a significant level of 0.022 in the group of high class anxiety. This result is consistent with findings in the previous section when examining the class as a whole. Learners who have higher class anxiety also tend to be the ones better motivated to learn English. Furthermore, the learners' amount of improvement did not correlate to any motivation attributes within this group. This has shown a positive

effect of the summer programme as the learners' class anxiety has been increased by the programme, their motivation for learning English, nonetheless, has been shown to be positively correlated to their class anxiety.

Table 5.15 Correlations amongst Post-course Motivation Attributes - Within High Class Anxiety Group

Motivation Attributes & Amount of Improvement		Language Attitude	Subject Preference	Neg-Worded Statement	Class Anx.	Motivation	Amount of Impv.
Language Attitude	Pearson Correlation	1	.530	**-.661****	.098	.371	-.026
	Sig.	.	.051	.010	.739	.191	.932
	N	14	14	14	14	14	13
Subject Preference	Pearson Correlation		1	**-.774****	-.101	.071	.069
	Sig.		.	.001	.731	.808	.823
	N		14	14	14	14	13
Neg-Worded Statement	Pearson Correlation			1	.240	.131	-.265
	Sig.			.	.408	.656	.381
	N			14	14	14	13
Class Anx.	Pearson Correlation				1	**.604***	-.175
	Sig.				.	.022	.567
	N				14	14	13
Motivation	Pearson Correlation					1	-.142
	Sig.					.	.644
	N					14	13
Amount of Impv.	Pearson Correlation						1
	Sig.						.
	N						13

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Key:	Amount of Impv.	Amount of Improvement
	Class Anx.	Classroom Anxiety

The summer programme has brought a positive impact rather than a negative one within the high class anxiety group in terms of student numbers. The results of the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test within the high class anxiety group are demonstrated in **Table 5.16 (p.217)**. To be more precise, 9 out of 14 students' language attitudes are better or the same at the end of the summer programme as at the beginning of it,

whereas 11 out of 14 found other subject learning more enjoyable or at least as enjoyable at the end of the programme.

Table 5.16 Changes of Motivation Attributes - Within High Class Anxiety Group

Motivation Attributes / Total N = 14		N	Z	Sig.
Language Attitude	Post < Pre	5	-.446	.655
	Post > Pre	6		
	Post = Pre	3		
Subject Preference	Post < Pre	3	-1.710	.087
	Post > Pre	8		
	Post = Pre	3		
Positive-Wording	Post < Pre	5	-.362	.717
	Post > Pre	4		
	Post = Pre	5		
Negative-Wording	Post < Pre	3	-2.045	**.041***
	Post > Pre	9		
	Post = Pre	2		
Class Anxiety	Post < Pre	0	-3.299	**.001****
	Post > Pre	14		
	Post = Pre	0		
Motivation	Post < Pre	5	-1.228	.220
	Post > Pre	9		
	Post = Pre	0		

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

However, there are also 11 out of 14 subjects who scored negative-worded statements higher at the end of the programme than at the beginning and only 4 out of 14 scored positive-worded statements higher when compared with their pre-course scores. There is also an encouraging sign for the summer programme as there are still 9 out of 14 learners finding themselves better motivated to learn English, although within this group all learners' class anxiety has increased.

The group of 9 learners with lower class anxiety reported lower class anxiety in the post-course questionnaire than in the pre-course. **Table 5.17** (p.219) presents correlations of motivation attributes and learners' amount of improvement for the low

class anxiety group. Within this group, learners' proficiency levels at the end of the programme tend to correlate negatively to their scores on negative-worded statements and class anxiety, which is contrary to their peers in the high anxiety group. The learners' class anxiety also has a positive correlation with English learning motivation which is at a significance level of 0.039, like their peers in the high anxiety group. Furthermore, the learners' amount of improvement is negatively correlated to their class anxiety at a significance level of 0.03. This is to say within the group of learners with low class anxiety those who had less improvement tended to score their anxiety higher than their peers. Additionally, there are negative correlations between the learners' proficiency levels and their English learning motivation, which is to say those with better proficiency scored lower than their peers in the group on motivation of English language learning. Nevertheless this correlation has only reached a significance level of 0.248 which can not be considered as significant.

Table 5.17 Correlations amongst Post-course Motivation Attributes - Within Low Class Anxiety Group

Motivation Attributes & Language Development, N=9		Negative Wording	Class Anxiety	Motivation	RP Level	Amount of Improvement
Neg-Worded Statement	Pearson Correlation	1	.186	-.040	**-.747***	-.254
	Sig.	.	.631	.919	.021	.510
Class Anxiety	Pearson Correlation		1	**.692***	-.625	**-.717***
	Sig.		.	.039	.072	.030
Motivation	Pearson Correlation			1	-.430	-.272
	Sig.			.	.248	.478
RP Level	Pearson Correlation				1	.589
	Sig.					.095
Amount of Improvement	Pearson Correlation					1
	Sig.					.

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The summer programme surprisingly brings more negative impact than positive on the learners in the group of low class anxiety. **Table 5.18** (p.220) displays how learners in the low class anxiety group changed their motivation attributes after undergoing the summer programme. Within the group, 6 learners reported a more negative language attitude at the end of the programme and only 2 reported improved language attitudes. 6 out of 9 subjects in this group scored positive-worded statements lower at the end of the programme than at the beginning and a further 7 out of 9 graded learning English more negatively at the end of the summer programme than before they started it. There are also 5 out of 9 students who scored lower on motivation for learning English at the end of the summer programme than at the beginning. However, within this group 6 out of 9 students showed improvement on their proficiency levels. Moreover, all pupils in this group demonstrated better self-confidence.

To sum up, within the low class anxiety group, the summer programme has brought a negative impact on students in terms of motivational attributes except their self-confidence. However, the programme had a positive impact on the learners' language development. The findings of improved self-conference and language proficiency are consistent with study of Masgoret et al. (2001).

Table 5.18 Changes of Motivation Attributes - Within Low Class Anxiety Group

Motivation Attributes / Total N = 9		N	Z	Sig.
Language Attitude	Post < Pre	6		
	Post > Pre	2	-1.053	.292
	Post = Pre	1		
Subject Preference	Post < Pre	4		
	Post > Pre	3	-.171	.865
	Post = Pre	2		
Positive Worded statements	Post < Pre	6		
	Post > Pre	2	-1.544	.123
	Post = Pre	1		
Negative Worded statements	Post < Pre	1		
	Post > Pre	7	-1.614	.106
	Post = Pre	1		
Class Anxiety	Post < Pre	8		
	Post > Pre	0	-2.527	**.012***
	Post = Pre	1		
Motivation	Post < Pre	5		
	Post > Pre	4	1.125	.260
	Post = Pre	0		
R P Test	Post < Pre	0		
	Post > Pre	6	-2.232	.026*
	Post = Pre	3		
Self-confidence	Post < Pre	0		
	Post > Pre	9	-2.676	.007**
	Post = Pre	0		

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed

5.3.3 Learners with High vs. Low scores on post-course motivations of learning English

This section will focus on examining how learners' scores on English language learning motivation relate to their other motivation attributes. The data will be grouped into high and low score groups for comparison derived from the results of the Wilcoxon Rank Test displayed in Table 5.10 Changes of Motivation Attributes: Pre vs. Post-Course (p.207). The high motivation group includes the learners whose post-course motivation scores are higher than their pre-course motivation scores. The low motivation group consists of the learners who scored post-course motivation lower than their pre-course ones. Table 5.19 exhibits correlations of the learners' motivation attributes within the high English learning motivation group. There is only one significant correlation amongst the motivation attributes studied, positive-worded statements and language attitudes. Within the group, the learners' language attitude has a positive correlation with their positive-worded statements. Other than that, some correlations can be found amongst the studied motivation attributes.

However none has reached any significant level. In addition, English learning motivation has correlations with the other motivation attributes, language attitude, subject preferences, positive-worded statements and class anxiety, except negative-worded statements. Nonetheless the correlations did not reach a significant level.

Table 5.19 Correlations amongst Post-course Motivation Attributes - Within High English Learning Motivation Group

Motivation Attributes N = 13		Lan Att.	Subject Preference	Positive wording	Neg Wording	Class Anxiety	Motivation
Language Attitude	Pearson Correlation	1	.467	**.628***	-.053	.177	.430
	Sig.	.	.108	.021	.862	.564	.142
Subject Preference	Pearson Correlation		1	.384	-.192	.172	.151
	Sig.		.	.195	.530	.574	.623
Positive-Worded Statements	Pearson Correlation			1	.197	.266	.453
	Sig.			.	.519	.380	.120
Negative-Worded Statements	Pearson Correlation				1	.148	-.192
	Sig.				.	.631	.530
Class Anxiety	Pearson Correlation					1	.468
	Sig.					.	.107
Motivation	Pearson Correlation						1
	Sig.						.

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Keys		
	Lan Att.	Language Attitude
	Neg Wording	Negative-worded statements
	Positive Wording	Positive-worded statements

Although all the subjects in this group have improved their English learning motivation at the end of the programme, not all of them demonstrated their other motivation attributes in a consistent pattern. **Table 5.20** reveals how exactly the learners' motivation attributes changed throughout the intervention. As we can see, there are 6 out of 13 subjects who reported a more negative language attitude whilst 8 out of 13 responded that they enjoy other subject learning more at the end of the intervention. Although the subjects have shown improved English learning motivation, 8 out of them also expressed more dislike of the learning of English. Also 9 of them showed higher class anxiety at the end of the intervention whereas 8 of 13 of them improved their proficiency levels and 5 remained at the same level as they started.

Table 5.20 Changes of Motivation Attributes - Within High English Learning Motivation Group

Motivation Attributes / Total N = 13		N	Z	Sig.
Language Attitude	Post < Pre	6		
	Post > Pre	6	-.670	.503
	Post = Pre	1		
Subject Preference	Post < Pre	3		
	Post > Pre	8	-1.917	.055
	Post = Pre	2		
Negative-worded Statements	Post < Pre	4		
	Post > Pre	8	-1.180	.238
	Post = Pre	1		
Class Anxiety	Post < Pre	3		
	Post > Pre	9	-2.278	**.023***
	Post = Pre	1		
Motivation	Post < Pre	0		
	Post > Pre	13	-3.185	**.001****
	Post = Pre	0		
RPLevel	Post < Pre	0		
	Post > Pre	8	-2.585	**.010****
	Post = Pre	5		

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

There are 10 of the 23 subjects included in this group. They are derived from Table 5.10 Changes of Motivation Attributes: Pre vs. Post-Course (p.207). Table 5.21 displays the correlation table of motivation attributes of the low English learning group at the post-course phase.

The subjects' scores on their negative feelings towards English learning (negative-worded statements) have negatively correlated to both their language attitudes and their interests of other school subject learning (subject preferences) at significant levels of 0.038 and 0.037. There is also a positive correlation (significant at the 0.05 level) between English learning motivation and class anxiety which is consistent with previous grouping.

Table 5.21 Correlations amongst Post-course Motivation Attributes - Within Low English Learning Motivation Group

Motivation Attributes		Language Attitude	Subject Preference	Neg Word	Class Anxiety	Motivation	Amount of Impv.
Language Attitude	Pearson Correlation	1	.630	**-.661***	-.127	.052	.268
	Sig.	.	.051	.038	.726	.887	.485
	N	10	10	10	10	10	9
Subject Preference	Pearson Correlation		1	**-.661***	.114	.208	-.463
	Sig.		.	.037	.755	.565	.210
	N		10	10	10	10	9
Neg Word	Pearson Correlation			1	.310	.308	-.110
	Sig.			.	.383	.387	.779
	N			10	10	10	9
Class Anxiety	Pearson Correlation				1	**.726***	-.606
	Sig.				.	.017	.084
	N				10	10	9
Motivation	Pearson Correlation					1	-.595
	Sig.					.	.091
	N					10	9
Amount of Impv.	Pearson Correlation						1
	Sig.						.
	N						10

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Keys:	Neg Word	Negative-worded statements
	Amount of Impv.	Amount of Improvement

In addition, the subjects' amount of improvement has a tendency to correlate negatively to their class anxiety and English learning motivation within the group of learners with lower English learning motivation at the end of the programme. Although the significance levels are low (0.084 and 0.091), these correlations are worth some attention. The learners with higher class anxiety and English learning motivation tend to improve their language proficiency less than their peers holding less class anxiety and English learning motivation. Nevertheless, based on the data gathered, it is inconclusive to say whether it is the learners' high class anxiety and English learning motivation causing low achievement or whether it is due to the low achievement resulting in learners' high class anxiety and generating learning

motivation, as the correlations could only reveal how motivation attributes relate to each other. However this cannot explain causation.

Generally, within the group of low English learning motivation, not only the learners' English learning motivation has decreased, but also their other motivation attributes have shown similar trends. **Table 5.22** (p.226) discloses how learners in the group of low English learning motivation changed their motivation attributes after receiving the summer programme. There are 5 subjects, comprising half of the group, whose language attitudes have become more negative at the end than at the beginning of the programme, whilst there are 4 subjects who reported a more negative opinion of enjoyment of other subject learning.

Table 5.22 Changes of Motivation Attributes - Within Low English Learning Motivation Group

Motivation Attributes / Total N = 10		N	Z	Sig.
Language Attitude	Post < Pre	5		
	Post > Pre	2	-1.185	.236
	Post = Pre	3		
Subject Preference	Post < Pre	4		
	Post > Pre	3	-.173	.862
	Post = Pre	3		
Positive Wording	Post < Pre	6		
	Post > Pre	1	-2.117	**.034***
	Post = Pre	3		
Negative Wording	Post < Pre	0		
	Post > Pre	8	-2.536	**.011***
	Post = Pre	2		
Class Anxiety	Post < Pre	5		
	Post > Pre	5	-.715	.475
	Post = Pre	0		
Motivation	Post < Pre	10		
	Post > Pre	0	-2.805	**.005****
	Post = Pre	0		
RP Level	Post < Pre	0		
	Post > Pre	6	-2.232	**.026***
	Post = Pre	3		
	Sub Total N	9		

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Furthermore, 4 out of 10 subjects scored positive-worded statements lower at the end than at the beginning of the intervention, whereas there are 8 out of 10 in this group who scored higher on their negative-worded statements at the end than at the beginning of the intervention. Meanwhile, the numbers of students who have increased and decreased class anxiety remained the same. As to these subjects' proficiency levels, 6 out of 10 have improved whilst 3 remain in the same RP levels as before they started the 6-week programme.

5.3.4 Learners with High vs. Low Amount of Improvement

The focus of this section is on examining how learners' proficiency development, in terms of how much each individual has improved, relates to changes of their motivation attributes. The data will be grouped into high and low score groups for comparison derived from the result of Wilcoxon Rank Test displayed in Table 5.10 Changes of Motivation Attributes: Pre vs. Post-Course (p.207). The high amount of improvement group, 7 of them, includes the learners whose post-course RP test results are at least 2 levels higher than their pre-course test results. The low amount of improvement group comprises learners whose post-course RP test results are only 1 level higher or the same as their pre-course RP test results. There are 15 subjects identified to be included in this group.

There is only one significant correlation, class anxiety and English learning motivation, amongst all the motivation attributes and their amount of improvement. This indicates that the subjects who have higher English learning motivation also tend to have higher class anxiety. **Table 5.23** (p.228) presents correlations of motivation attributes for learners in the group of high amount of improvement. It is interesting that within the group of high amount of improvement, the learners' improvement does not correlate to their motivation attributes. Furthermore, unlike correlation patterns in other groupings, learners in this group do not show any positive correlations amongst their motivation attributes of language attitudes, subject preferences and positive-worded statements at any significant levels. Additionally, within the group of high improvement, learners' class anxiety has a negative correlation with their negative feelings toward English learning (negative-worded statements). This is to say learners in this group who have higher anxiety are more likely to score negative-worded statements lower. In other words, learners with higher class anxiety do not consider

learning English as negatively as those who have lower class anxiety. Nevertheless, the correlation (Sig. 0.092) between these two Attributes does not achieve a significant level, 0.05.

Table 5.23 Correlations amongst Motivation Attributes - Within Group of High Amout of Improvement

Motivation Attributes N=7		Subject Preference	Positive Word	Neg Word	Class Anxiety	Motivation	Amount of Impv.
Language Attitude	Pearson Correlation	.528	.296	-.235	.104	-.250	.551
	Sig.	.223	.519	.612	.824	.589	.200
Subject Preference	Pearson Correlation	1	.163	-.305	.315	.184	-.156
	Sig.		.727	.507	.491	.693	.739
Positive Wording	Pearson Correlation		1	.470	-.038	.027	.238
	Sig.			.288	.935	.954	.608
Neg Word	Pearson Correlation			1	-.680	-.591	.014
	Sig.				.092	.162	.976
Class Anxiety	Pearson Correlation				1	**.873***	-.359
	Sig.					.010	.429
Motivation	Pearson Correlation					1	-.438
	Sig.						.326
Amount of Impv.	Pearson Correlation						1
	Sig.						.

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Keys:	Neg Word	Negative-worded statements
	Amount of Impv.	Amount of Improvement

Changes of motivation attributes within the group of high amount of improvement are displayed in **Table 5.24** (p.229). It reveals that there are 5 out of 7 learners whose language attitude became more positive and 2 became more negative at the end of the intervention whereas there are only 2 of these learners who showed improved enjoyment of subject learning and the other 5 reported decreased enjoyment of subject learning at the end of the programme.

Within the group of high amount of improvement, the learners showed significantly decreased scores (Sig. 0.043) on positive-worded statements. Despite the high amount of improvement of their proficiency levels, they reported less enjoyment of subject learning at the end of the programme than at the beginning of it. Likewise, there are also 5 out of 7 learners in this group who reported higher scores on negative-worded statements at the end of the programme, which is to say they found English learning less favourable. In addition, the class anxiety and English learning motivation of these learners have changed very little compared with their pre-course scores.

Table 5.24 Changes of Motivation Attributes - Within Group of High Amount of Improvement

Motivation Attributes & Proficiency Level Total N = 7		N	Z	Sig.
Language Attitude	Post < Pre	2		
	Post > Pre	5	-1.337	.175
	Post = Pre	0		
Subject Preference	Post < Pre	5		
	Post > Pre	2	-.254	.799
	Post = Pre	0		
Positive-Worded Statements	Post < Pre	5		
	Post > Pre	0	-2.023	**.043***
	Post = Pre	2		
Negative-Worded Statements	Post < Pre	1		
	Post > Pre	6	-1.781	.075
	Post = Pre	0		
Class Anxiety	Post < Pre	3		
	Post > Pre	3	-.527	.598
	Post = Pre	1		
Motivation	Post < Pre	3		
	Post > Pre	4	.000	1.000
	Post = Pre	0		
RP Level	Post < Pre	0		
	Post > Pre	7	-2.530	**.011***
	Post = Pre	0		

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The majority of the class, 15 out of 22 who participated in both pre- and post- RP tests, are grouped into the low amount of improvement group as most of them have improved 1 level or remain at the same level at the end of the programme. **Table 5.25** (p.230) exhibits correlations of these learners' motivation attributes and amount of improvement. Within the group of low amount of improvement, learners' language attitudes are positively correlated to their subject preferences, positive-worded statements and motivations of English learning at a significant level of 0.05.

Table 5.25 Correlations amongst Motivation Attributes - Within Group of Low Amount of Improvement

Motivation Attributes N=15		Language Attitude	Sub-Pref.	Positive Wording	Class Anxiety	Motives.	Amount of Imprv.
Language Attitude	Pearson Correlation	1	**.523***	**.525***	.104	**.572***	.048
	Sig.	.	.045	.045	.713	.026	.864
Subject Preference	Pearson Correlation		1	.360	.128	.346	.087
	Sig.			.188	.650	.206	.757
Positive Wording	Pearson Correlation			1	.175	.468	-.173
	Sig.				.534	.079	.537
Class Anxiety	Pearson Correlation				1	.447	-.282
	Sig.				.	.095	.308
Motivation	Pearson Correlation					1	-.316
	Sig.					.	.251
Amount of Improvement	Pearson Correlation						1
	Sig.						.

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Keys:	Sub-Pref.	Subject Preference
	Positive Wording	Positive-worded Statements
	Motives	Other Motivations of English Learning
	Amount of Impv.	Amount of Improvement

Further, this group of learners' English learning motivations are correlated to their scores of positive-worded statements (Sig. = 0.079) and class anxiety (Sig. = 0.095) positively. Nevertheless none of the correlations reach a significance level of 0.05. Additionally, the learners' amount of improvement does not correlate to all their motivation attributes. This pattern is consistent with their peers in the high amount of improvement group.

Within the group of learners with a lower amount of improvement compared with their peers, 7 out of 15 learners moved up 1 level in their RP test results while the rest of the group, 8 of themed, remain in the same RP levels as before they received the summer programme. Changes of motivation attributes within the group of low amount of improvement are disclosed in **Table 5.26** (p.232). Eight of the 15 students in this group who showed a decreased language attitude toward English whilst 3 showed more positive attitudes toward English and 4 remained the same. Although learners in this group did not improve as much as their peers in the high improvement group, more than half of them found themselves enjoying other school subject learning (shown as Subject preference) more after receiving the summer programme. There are also more learners, 6 out of 15, who showed declined scores on positive-worded statements than learners, 5 out of 15, with increased scores. The majority of the group, 9 out of 15, reported higher scores on negative-worded statements at the end of the programme than at the beginning whereas only 3 learners in this group scored lower on this motivation trait at the end of the intervention. In addition, 10 out of 15 subjects in this group had higher class anxiety and the rest of the group who reported lower class anxiety at the end of the programme. Although two-thirds of the learners in this group gained class anxiety due to the intervention, there are also 9 out of 15 who reported higher motivations for English learning.

Table 5.26 Changes of Motivation Attributes - Within Group of Low Amount of Improvement

Motivation Attributes & Proficiency Level / N = 15		N	Z	Sig.
Language Attitude	Post < Pre	8		
	Post > Pre	3	-1.293	.196
	Post = Pre	4		
Subject Preference	Post < Pre	2		
	Post > Pre	8	-1.791	.073
	Post = Pre	5		
Positive-Worded Statements	Post < Pre	6		
	Post > Pre	5	-.402	.687
	Post = Pre	4		
Negative-Worded Statements	Post < Pre	3		
	Post > Pre	9	-1.852	.064
	Post = Pre	3		
Class Anxiety	Post < Pre	5		
	Post > Pre	10	-1.821	.069
	Post = Pre	0		
Motivation	Post < Pre	6		
	Post > Pre	9	-.057	.955
	Post = Pre	0		
RP Level	Post < Pre	0		
	Post > Pre	7	-2.646	**.008****
	Post = Pre	8		

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

To sum up, when dividing up the class into groups of high and low amount of improvement, there is a very clear distinction between the groups. Learners in the group of high amount of improvement tend to share a motivation trait pattern with a more positive language attitude, decreased scores on subject learning enjoyment, increased scores on negative-worded statements, neutrality on positive-worded statements, class anxiety and English learning motivations after receiving the summer programme. On the other hand, learners in the group of low amount of improvement have a tendency to have more negative language attitudes, increased enjoyment of subject learning, neutrality on positive-worded statements, increased scores on

negative-worded statements and increased scores on both class anxiety and English learning motivations after receiving the summer programme.

5.3.5 Learners with High vs. Low Proficiency levels in Post-course RP Test

This section examines how learners' proficiency levels at the end of the summer programme relate to changes of their motivation attributes. The data will be grouped into high and low score groups for comparison derived to the result of the Wilcoxon Rank Test displayed in Table 5.10 Changes of Motivation Attributes: Pre vs. Post-Course (p.207). The high proficiency group, 18 of them, includes the learners whose post-course RP test results are at level 4 or above. The low proficiency group comprises learners whose post-course RP test results are at levels 2 or 3. There are 4 subjects identified to be included in this group. **Table 5.27** presents correlations amongst the subjects' post-course motivation attributes within the group of low proficiency learners, in which there are 18 students.

Table 5.27 Correlations amongst Post-course Motivation Attributes - Within Higher Proficiency Group

Motivation Attributes N=18		Language Attitude	Subject Pref.	Class Anxiety	Motivation	Amount of Impv.
Language Attitude	Pearson Correlation	1	**.519***	-.036	.210	.092
	Sig.	.	.027	.886	.404	.715
Subject Pref.	Pearson Correlation		1	.401	.371	-.337
	Sig.		.	.099	.130	.171
Class Anxiety	Pearson Correlation			1	**.595****	**-.537***
	Sig.			.	.009	.022
Motivation	Pearson Correlation				1	-.174
	Sig.				.	.490
Amount of Impv.	Pearson Correlation					1
	Sig.					.

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Keys:	Subject Pre.	Subject Preference
	Amount of Impv.	Amount of Improvement

However their class anxiety has a negative correlation with their amount of improvement at the 0.05 significance level (Sig. = 0.022). Less proficient learners tend to have higher class anxiety. In addition, within the group, the learners' class anxiety positively correlates to their enjoyment of subject learning. The positive correlation is interesting as the learners with higher class anxiety tend to enjoy subject learning more than their peers who have lower class anxiety.

The numbers of students with increased scores, 8 out of 18, and decreased scores, 7 out of 18, on language attitudes are very close within the group of learners with high proficiency. The changes of motivation attributes within the group of high proficiency learners are displayed in **Table 5.28** (p.236). Only 4 out of 18 learners who scored higher regarding their positive feelings towards English learning (positive-worded statements) at the end of the programme whilst 10 out of 18 scored lower. This is to say there were fewer learners who thought learning English is 'cooler' or 'better' than they thought, than there were learners who thought learning English is less 'cool' or 'great'. Moreover, there are also more learners, 11 out of 18, who scored higher on negative-worded statements than learners who scored lower, 4 out of 18, at the end of the programme when comparing pre- and post-course LMQ results.

Additionally, the motivation Attributes of class anxiety and motivation of learning English showed a similar pattern in terms of numbers of students on increased and decreased scoring when examining pre- and post-course LMQ changes. Although all learners in this group are considered to be the more proficient ones compared with their peers in the low proficiency group, there are still 4 of the 18 who remained at the same RP level as before they received the summer programme.

By the end of the summer programme, the learners whose post-course RP test results only achieved level 2 or 3 are identified as low proficiency learners. There are 4 out of 23 subjects in total classified in this group.

Table 5.28 Changes of Motivation Attributes - Within Higher Proficiency Group

Motivation Attributes N = 18		N	Z	Sig.
Language Attitude	Post < Pre	7		
	Post > Pre	8	-.656	.512
	Post = Pre	3		
Subject Preference	Post < Pre	6		
	Post > Pre	8	-1.639	.101
	Post = Pre	4		
Positive-Worded Statements	Post < Pre	10		
	Post > Pre	4	-1.767	.077
	Post = Pre	4		
Negative-Worded Statements	Post < Pre	4		
	Post > Pre	11	-1.613	.107
	Post = Pre	3		
Class Anxiety	Post < Pre	7		
	Post > Pre	10	-.729	.466
	Post = Pre	1		
Motivation	Post < Pre	8		
	Post > Pre	10	-.196	.844
	Post = Pre	0		
RP Level	Post < Pre	0		
	Post > Pre	14	-3.372	**.001****
	Post = Pre	4		

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations amongst post-course motivation attributes within the group of low proficiency level are presented in **Table 5.29** (p.237). A positive correlation can be found between positive-worded statements and language attitude at the 0.05 significance level within the group of low proficiency. This is consistent with the correlation found in pre-course motivation attributes (please see Table 5.8 Correlations amongst motivation attributes in Pre-course LMQ and RWSA, p.200). Within the group, the learners who scored positive-worded statements high also tend

to have good language attitude at the post-course LMQ. The negative correlations between post-course RP levels and language attitudes and RP level and positive-worded statements are highly significant at the 0.001 level. More proficient learners tend to have a more negative language attitude and lower scores on positive-worded statements than their peers in this group. These correlations can be explained when looking at a bigger picture of the context.

Table 5.29 Correlations amongst Post-course Motivation Attributes - Within Less Proficiency Group

Motivation Attributes N=4		Language Attitude	Positive Wording	Parent Support	Motivation	RP Level
Language Attitude	Pearson Correlation	1	.988*	.899	.899	-.995**
	Sig.		.012	.101	.101	.005
Positive Wording	Pearson Correlation		1	.933	.933	-.968*
	Sig.			.067	.067	.032
Parent Support	Pearson Correlation			1	1.000**	-.867
	Sig.				.000	.133
Motivation	Pearson Correlation				1	-.867
	Sig.					.133
RP Level	Pearson Correlation					1
	Sig.					

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Key: Positive Wording Positive-worded statements

All the learners in this group had the same RP levels at the end of the programme as before they received it; 3 achieved RP level 2, and 1 achieved RP level 3. Before the intervention, there were 7 out of 22 learners who achieved RP Level 2, and 8 out of 22 learners in RP Level 3. After the intervention, there were only 4 learners in RP level 2 and level 3. By looking at individuals' proficiency ranks pre-and post-course

with the whole class, the learner at level 3 at the end of the programme has dropped more than the learners at level 2 at the end of the programme in terms of proficiency rank in the class. The sense of lack of achievement might then help to explain why this more proficient learner had more negative language attitude and lower score on positive-worded statements than his less proficient peers in the group of low proficiency. Nevertheless, due to the small sample size in this group, 4 in total, this correlation could be purely coincidental as only one subject has dropped dramatically in terms of proficiency ranking in the class.

Additionally, within the group of low proficiency, the subjects who reported receiving high parental support also tended to be better motivated towards English learning than their peers. Not all the learners in this group showed improvement in their post-course RP tests as they all remained in the same level as they started the programme. **Table 5.30** (p.239) exhibits changes of motivation attributes within the low proficiency group. Three out of 4 learners who reported higher language learning motivations and class anxiety at the end of the programme than at the beginning of it whereas 3 out of 4 reported less positive language attitude at the end of the intervention. Furthermore, all subjects in this group reported higher scores on negative-worded statements in the post-course LMQ than their pre-course LMQ. To sum up, learners in the low proficiency group not only had no language gain after receiving the summer programme, but they also reported worse language attitudes, higher class anxiety and lower English learning motivation.

Table 5.30 Changes of Motivation Attributes - Within Less Proficiency Group

Motivation Attributes N=4		N	Z	Sig.
Language Attitude	Post < Pre	3		
	Post > Pre	0	-1.604	.109
	Post = Pre	1		
Negative-Worded Statements	Post < Pre	0		
	Post > Pre	4	-1.826	.068
	Post = Pre	0		
Class Anxiety	Post < Pre	1		
	Post > Pre	3	-1.095	.273
	Post = Pre	0		
Motivation	Post < Pre	1		
	Post > Pre	3	-.552	.581
	Post = Pre	0		
RP Level	Post < Pre	0		
	Post > Pre	0	.000	1.000
	Post = Pre	4		

In order to find out if the pattern of motivation trait changes identified in the group of low proficiency level applies to all the learners remaining at the same RP level in post-course tests, the correlations of post-course motivation attributes within the group of learners without language gain are generated and presented in **Table 5.31** (p.240). There are 8 learners classified in this group as, regardless of their pre-course RP level, they all remain in the same levels as before the summer programme. To make it clear, this is not to say learners in this group had absolutely no language gain after receiving the very intensive 6-week CBLI summer programme. More precisely, the learners did not show enough improvement to be graded as sufficiently proficient to move to the next level.

Table 5.31 Correlations amongst Post-course Motivation Attributes - Within Group of Learners without Language Gain in RP Tests

Motivation Attributes N = 8		Language Attitude	Positive wording	Negative wording	Motivation	RP Level
Language Attitude	Pearson Correlation	1	**.880****	-.102	**.863****	-.100
	Sig.	.	.004	.810	.006	.815
Positive Wording	Pearson Correlation		1	.152	**.868****	-.474
	Sig.		.	.720	.005	.235
Negative Wording	Pearson Correlation			1	.098	-.655
	Sig.			.	.817	.078
Motivation	Pearson Correlation				1	-.354
	Sig.				.	.390
RP Level	Pearson Correlation					1
	Sig.					.

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Keys:	Positive wording	Positive-worded statements
	Negative wording	Negative-worded statements

The result revealed that there was one similarity between learners with low proficiency level and those who remained in the same RP levels at the end of the summer programme. The learners' language attitudes are positively correlated to their scores on positive-worded statements and English learning motivation at significance level of 0.001. The learners' English learning motivation also positively correlated to their scores of positive-worded statements at the significance level of 0.001. Additionally, the learners' RP levels did not correlate to any of the motivation attributes. This is to say the group of learners without language gain does not share the same correlation pattern as the group of learners with low proficiency level.

Although there was not much language gain for the learners in the group of no language gain, only 1 out of 8 learners enjoyed other school subject-learning.

Table 5.32 (p.242) discloses more details of how motivation attributes changed for the learners in the group of no language gain.

Four learners reported less positive language attitudes whilst only 1 out of 8 reported a more positive language attitude at the end of the programme. Five out of these 8 learners who showed increased scores and 1 reported a decreased score on subject learning enjoyment. Although there is no big difference between student numbers who reported increased (2 out of 8) and decreased (3 out of 8) scores on positive-worded statements, 7 out of 8 learners who reported higher scores on negative-worded statements at the end of the intervention. In addition, 3 out of 8 learners reported decreased scores on class anxiety and English learning motivation whereas 5 out of 8 reported higher scores on these two motivation attributes at the end of the programme. Summing up, while learners in the group of no language gain might not celebrate as much improvement in their proficiency levels, the majority of them have shown a improvement in their motivation attributes after receiving the summer programme.

Table 5.32 Changes of Motivation Attributes - Within Group of Learners without Language Gain in RP Tests

Motivation Attributes N = 8		N	Z	Sig.
Language Attitude	Post < Pre	4		
	Post > Pre	1	-1.219	.223
	Post = Pre	3		
Subject Preference	Post < Pre	1		
	Post > Pre	5	-1.687	.092
	Post = Pre	2		
Positive-worded Statements	Post < Pre	3		
	Post > Pre	2	-.813	.416
	Post = Pre	3		
Negative-worded Statements	Post < Pre	1		
	Post > Pre	7	-1.755	.079
	Post = Pre	0		
Class anxiety	Post < Pre	3		
	Post > Pre	5	-1.126	.260
	Post = Pre	0		
Motivation	Post < Pre	3		
	Post > Pre	5	-.281	.779
	Post = Pre	0		
RP Level	Post < Pre	0		
	Post > Pre	0	.000	1.000
	Post = Pre	8		

5.4 Summary of the Learners' changes on Motivation Attributes

It is evident that in this research both the results of the learners' reports on learning motivation attributes and the teacher's observations endorse that the use of CBLI with EFL young learners not only helped with the learners' language development but also improved their interest in other school subject learning, although there were no significant changes found in the learners' language attitude and positive feelings towards English learning. The cross-examination of pre- and post-course LMQ also further reveals that each motivation attribute change had an impact on the others. For illustration, the learners with different amounts of improvement demonstrated different levels of class anxiety which is also positively correlated to their motivations on English learning.

More importantly, this study concluded that the use of content element in a language class, namely the subject-learning session in this research, had an immediate and direct impact on the learners' classroom performance in terms of willingness to participate in classroom activities, study skills applied, and creative language production. Based on six weeks of observation, the teacher considers subject-learning sessions are more motivating, than the language input sessions in terms of the former excite the learners more and generate more creative thinking and participation than the latter. As for the learners who were not as participative and interested in learning as their peers, the teacher believes it was due to the fact that those learners were just not mature enough to be in such a big class and were not ready to cope with large group learning. The teacher further explained that the less motivated learners were at

the development stage where they only care about themselves, and just simply needed time to realize there were other things going on in the class.

To sum up, the use of CBLI has a positive impact on English learners' motivation (Swain, 1974; Masgoret et al., 2001) and further provides learning and practising opportunities for academic skills (Chamot and O'Malley, 1987). This approach greatly benefits learners in learning language, subject matter content, and cognitive as well as social skills in an integrated manner (Mohan, 1986). By analyzing and comparing the data gathered in pre- and post-course tests on the learners' motivation attributes and proficiency development, it is evident that the use of CBLI increased the learners' interests in other school subject learning. Although there were certain learners who did not improve as much as the rest of the class, they were better off by the end of the programme in terms of motivation intensity.

Chapter 6 Discussion and Conclusion

In this chapter, a summary of research findings and discussion regarding the use of Content-based language instruction (CBLI) with Taiwanese EFL young learners and its impact of the learners' motivations, attitudes, and anxiety toward English language learning will be presented in section 6.1 Answering the Research Question. An examination of the limitations in the present study will also be included in section 6.2 Limitations of the Present Study. In addition to the above, the implications for CBLI use in terms of practicality and applicability for pedagogical practice in language teaching and learning in EFL contexts, particularly on designing a curriculum for young learners, will be highlighted in section 6.3 Implications for Pedagogy & Curriculum Design. Finally, some comments on implications for further research will be made in 6.4 Final Remarks.

6.1 Answering the Research Question

This section will emphasize discussion on the main research question, '**what is the impact of CBLI on EFL young learners in terms of their language development, motivations, attitudes, and anxiety towards English language learning?**' to verify the impact of CBLI on EFL young learners' language development and motivation, language attitude and anxiety. Detailed discussion of the relationships between the motivation attributes will also be included, as these attributes are influential to individual learners in terms of success in target language acquisition as well as learning intensity in the target language. The detailed discussion of these relationships also provides a direct response towards the four research sub-questions derived from the main question.

Evidence in the data presented in Chapter 4 shows that the use of CBLI in the present study had an impact on the subjects' motivational attributes. The results also revealed that all subjects improved their proficiency levels significantly after the 6-week summer programme. However, the degree of programme impact on each learner varied in terms of how it correlated to individual learners with different motivation attributes intensities. The details of these correlations are summarised via discussion of the following sub-questions.

6.1.1 Impact of CBLI on the Learners' Language Development

This section is in direct response to sub-question 1 proposed in Chapter 3, **'whether CBLI helps both lower-level and higher-level proficiency learners to improve their language development'.** Generally speaking, the Rapid Profile (RP) test result sets, presented in 4.2, show that the use of CBLI did help both more-proficient and less-proficient learners to improve their grammatical competence. However the amount of individuals' development varies according to the paired-sample T test result disclosed in 4.2.1. Furthermore, the variation is correlated to their pre-course as well as their post-course proficiency. The pre-course proficiency summary of the class is presented in Table 6.1. Before the summer programme, more than one-third of the learners reached RP Level-2 proficiency which indicates learners' ability to produce SVO/SVO? structure, use of plural 's', possessive 's', 'ing' form, and simple past tense morphing 'ed' within the minimal time frame given (please see actual speech samples in Table 6.1). Over a third of the learners reached RP Level-3 proficiency when they were able to produce 'wh' questions and 'do' fronting questions as well as 'Adverb + SVO' structure. More than a quarter of the class reached RP Level-4 which indicates that those learners were able to produce structures of 'Copula S (x)' and 'Wh copula S (x)'. To sum up, the learners' proficiency levels were more or less equally distributed in RP levels 1, 2 and 3 before the summer programme.

Table 6.1 Pre-course Class Proficiency Summary

RP Level	Actual Speech Samples Examples From Pre-course RP Test	Phenomena	Student number	Percent N=22
2	They are eating. People are buying things.	S neg V(O) SVO, SVO? -ed, -ing Plural-s (Noun) Poss-s (Noun)	8	36.4%
3	Where did the tree go? Saturday and Sunday, I in my home exercise. Does you see a snail on a leaf?	Do-SV(O)-? Aux SV(O)-? Wh SV(O)-? Adverb-1st Poss (Pronoun) Object (Pronoun)	8	36.4%
4	Where is a boat? He is going to help some people to pay. Does you know which boy is gone?	Copula S (x) Wh-copula S (x) V-Particle	6	27.3%

Nearly 80% of the subjects reached RP levels 4 and 5 by the end of the summer programme. Table 6.2 presents RP level distribution of the class studied during the post-course test. The result shows that about one-fifth of the subjects only reached RP levels 2 and 3 during the post-course test. To conclude, based on the figures in Table 6.1 and Table 6.2, the CBLI programme helped learners, regardless of their proficiency levels before the summer programme, to improve their grammatical competence.

Table 6.2 Post-course Class Proficiency Summary

RP Level	Actual Speech Samples Examples From Post-course RP Test	Phenomena	Student number	Percent N=22
2	The big dinosaur want to catch the small dinosaur. You like dog?	S neg V(O) SVO, SVO? -ed, -ing Plural-s (Noun) Poss-s (Noun)	3	13.6%
3	Because it is that little dinosaur eating she's egg. What animals do you like? What time you eat? Because somebody let him fall down	Do-SV(O)-? Aux SV(O)-? Wh SV(O)-? Adverb-1st Poss (Pronoun) Object (Pronoun)	1	4.5%
4	Teacher, what is your telephone number? Teacher, what is your favourite colour? What is your age?	Copula S (x) Wh-copula S (x) V-Particle	13	56.5%
5	Do you like swimming? He say 'I don't have say how to play' and he see here. Did your teacher like dogs? Did I say because dog can help me see and help me take something?	Neg/Aux-2nd-? Aux-2nd-? 3sg-s-	5	22.7%

Nevertheless there are differences amongst the individuals in terms of the amount of improvement. Table 6.3 is a summary of how much the subjects improved after undergoing the summer programme. The learners who improved less than 1 RP

level were mainly those who started with lower proficiency levels in English, RP Level 2 and 3. The majority, nearly 60%, of the class improved 1 to 2 levels whereas there was one exceptional subject who improved 3 levels, from RP Level-2 to RP Level-5. One possible explanation for this exceptional case could be that it was due to an under-representative pre-course RP test result for this specific learner who was identified as 'the sharpest in the class' by the teacher during the pre-course interview. The under-representative test result could be due to the learner not being familiar with the new learning environment or being over-anxious when carrying out the test tasks.

Table 6.3 Amount of Language Development

Amount of Development	Student Numbers	Percentage N=22
<1 level	8	36%
= 1 level	7	32%
2 levels	6	27%
3 levels	1	5%

6.1.2 Learners' amount of language development and their motivation intensity changes

The second sub-question of my study, **'Are learners with higher and lower levels of achievement better motivated towards English language learning and content subject learning in primary schools after experiencing CBLI programme?'**, was answered by comparing the results of pre- and post-course questionnaires and teacher's interviews.

6.1.2.1 The LMQ and RWSA Results

Amongst all the motivational attributes investigated in this study, namely language attitude, subject preferences, positive-worded statements, negative-worded statements, parent support, classroom anxiety, English learning motivation, and self-confidence, only 3 attributes, negative-worded statements, classroom anxiety and self-confidence, showed significant changes in the pre- and post-course Learning Motivation Questionnaire (LMQ) and the Reading and Writing Self-Assessment Questionnaire (RWSA) results.

Generally speaking, the class showed increased scores on classroom anxiety, negative-worded statements (cf. Table 5.10 Changes of Motivation Attributes: Pre vs. Post-Course, p.207) and self-confidence (cf. Table 5.4 Improvement of Reading and Writing Abilities: Pre vs. Post-course RWSA, p.189). This means the summer programme enhanced their negative feelings towards learning English as they showed higher scores on their post-course negative-worded statements. However classroom anxiety also positively correlated to the learners' motivation towards learning English

(p=0.001). This was shown in Table 5.9 Correlations amongst motivation attributes in Post-course LMQ and RWSA in p.205.

Nonetheless, it is important to point out here that the summer programme did not make the subjects feel less positive towards English learning as the findings showed there was no decrease in the subjects' post-course scores on positive-worded statements. Additionally, the subjects who improved to a lesser degree ended with stronger negative feelings towards English learning than their peers (please see 5.3.1 Learners with High vs. Low scores on Negative-worded statements, p.209). Although there was no significant change (p=0.125, see Table 5.10 Changes of Motivation Attributes: Pre vs. Post-Course, p.207), when looking at the class as a whole, on the motivational attribute of English learning motivation, the subjects showed increased interest in other school subject learning, Science, Maths, Art and Social Studies in the school.

Additionally, in the whole-class data presented in section 5.3.4 Learners with High vs. Low Amount of Improvement (p.227, Table 5.23, p.228 and Table 5.25, p.230) there was no significant correlation between the learners' amount of improvement in their grammatical competence and their motivational attributes. Further, there were no significant correlations between the subjects' post-course RP levels and their motivational attribute changes.

6.1.2.2 The Teacher's Account

During interviews, both pre- and post-course, the teacher pointed out that her students were definitely more 'excited' in content-subject lessons in terms of participation and interaction. Further, the subjects, especially the more talented ones, produced more target language in a creative way as the content-embedded lessons

were more cognitively challenging. The teacher commented that it might be due to the nature of the content-subject lessons providing opportunities for them to use the target language creatively.

The teacher did not consider that those who appeared to lack interest in learning were not motivated. Instead, she considered that these learners were not ready for formal schooling yet due to their mental immaturity. Accordingly, these learners needed time to notice things happening around them and to learn how to learn and interact with people around them.

6.1.3 Impact of CBLI on the learners' language attitude

This section is in direct response to sub-question 3, **'does CBLI have a positive or negative impact on the learners' a) attitude toward English and b) content subject learning in primary schools after experiencing the summer CBLI course?'**. The answer for this sub-question was derived from pre- and post-course LMQ results and partly from the teacher's interviews.

6.1.3.1 Impact of CBLI on the Learners' Language Attitude

The subjects' language attitude remained more or less the same at the end of the summer programme, as the data revealed in section 5.2 Learners' Learning Motivation Attributes Changes (p.195). In other words, the summer CBLI programme had no significant impact on the subjects' language attitudes. The learners who demonstrated more positive language attitudes towards English tended to enjoy learning school subjects more than their peers did.

6.1.3.2 Impact of CBLI on the Learners' interest on school subject learning

The teacher pointed out how this class developed special interests in creative writing and art during the 6-week summer programme and how impressive their work was. However, she also pointed out that there were individual differences in terms of academic abilities. At one point, she described how some of the very quiet subjects stood out in class in creative writing whereas the most 'talented' pupil appeared to lack imagination when constructing stories based on the knowledge he acquired from content lessons. She concluded that it was important to expose the learners to

different subject learning as well as providing learners with opportunities for engaging in variety of activities in a way that accepted that different people had different things that helped them learn.

6.1.4 Impact of CBLI on the learners' classroom anxiety

Regarding sub-question 4, **'does CBLI help reduce classroom anxiety for learners with a lower level of language development towards English language learning? Is the level of classroom anxiety reduction the same as learners with a higher level of language development?'**, the research findings disclosed that the summer programme increased learners' classroom anxiety significantly. Further, most of the learners (10 out of 15) with a lower amount of language development had an increase in their scores on classroom anxiety whereas the learners with a higher amount of language development had no increase in their scores on classroom anxiety ($P = 0.598$). This was not a surprising result in since it corresponded with research reviewed in Chapter 2.

Unexpectedly, the data analysis revealed in Chapter 5 showed a positive correlation on the subjects' motivations on English learning and their classroom anxiety at a significant level ($P = 0.037$, see Table 5.10 Changes of Motivation Attributes: Pre vs. Post-Course, p.207). Further, Table 5.18 Changes of Motivation Attributes - Within Low Class Anxiety Group (p.220) revealed that the subjects who had less classroom anxiety tended to improve more on their language proficiency ($P = 0.026$) and self-confidence ($P = 0.007$). The teacher pointed out that the learners who were less proficient in the target language had higher anxiety when speaking out in the class. She commented that some of these learners were just afraid of making mistakes and were trying too hard to get everything perfect when speaking in class and the others were just shy and would be perfectly happy to be quiet in a crowd. The teacher's comment might provide an explanation for the correlation between the less proficient learners' classroom anxiety and motivation on English learning, as when

learners are very motivated to learn a language and keen on getting everything right, it is very likely they end up making themselves anxious by trying too hard and worrying too much.

6.1.5 Conclusion on Research Findings

Based on the data collected from different sources, namely by the use of pre- and post-course LMQ, RWSA, RP tests, and the teacher's interviews, it appeared that the use of CBLI had a positive impact on the learners' grammatical competence as well as reading and writing abilities. However its impact on the learners' motivation attributes varied according to the learners' motivation trait differences and their English proficiency levels. It was very clear that some motivational attributes, negative-worded statements, classroom anxiety, and self-confidence correlated to the learners' proficiency levels and the amount of their improvement. Various researchers in the field of language learning and motivation (Dörnyei 1990; Gardner 1985, 1989; Masgoret et al., 2001) suggest that learners' motivation attributes correlate to their achievement in a positive manner. However the result in this study suggested that the higher achievers in this study remained more neutral on their changes in motivation attributes than their peers.

The use of CBLI had a positive impact on the less proficient learners' motivations in English learning as well as content subject learning; however it also caused more classroom anxiety. On the other hand, the more proficient learners remained more neutral on their motivational attributes throughout the summer programme. Nevertheless, the data collected was not sufficient to draw a clearer picture on causations of these correlations due to the complexity of motivational studies (Gardner, 2000).

6.2 Limitations of the Present Study

Even though this study provides in-depth findings on the use of CBLI with EFL young learners in Taiwan based on the authentic context of a private primary school, as noted in section 3.7 Methodological Limitations (p.152), there are limitations which need to be highlighted and which should not be overlooked by readers or researchers who might be considering implementing this study in teaching practice or who are interested in conducting similar studies. The limitations of this study mainly concern reliability issues on one of the quantitative instruments employed, namely the RWSA, unrepresentative sampling, non-generalisability of research findings as well as the possible long-term effect of CBLI. Gardner (1985:5) comments 'A study, no matter how carefully conducted, can not be taken as conclusive. It is only with repeated investigations that the complexities of an area can be truly appreciated and comprehended'. Despite the care with which this research was designed and with which it triangulated data with the multiple resources used, it cannot be claimed as conclusive, given that this study was conducted in only one particular EFL context and with a very small group of subjects. These limitations are discussed further below.

The use of RWSA provided a very good indicator for the subjects' self-confidence in the use of the target language which is one motivational attribute (Dornyei, 2001; Masgoret et al., 2001), however it was not validated for its use of assessing the subjects' reading and writing abilities as it originally intended. Although many empirical studies conclude that language learners do have abilities to assess their skills in target language use, it cannot be claimed to be the case in this study as there were no opportunities to validate the findings with other testing

instruments (Blanche, 1990; Coombe, 2002; Coombe & Canning, 2002; Shameem, 1998; Windeatt, 1981). Although RP tests were also implemented in this study and provided a very reliable instrument to assess the subjects' developmental stages, the results could not be used to validate RWSA as RP tests were used to assess the subjects' speaking skills rather than reading and writing. Moreover it is well known that language learners can develop their four skills, speaking, reading, listening, and writing simultaneously but not necessarily in parallel (Cameron, 2000; Canale & Swain, 1980).

Unrepresentative sampling was a big drawback of the present study. As noted in section 1.1.3 Culture of Supplementary Learning & National Statistics (p.13) and 3.2 Context and Participants (p.91), there were more than 80 % of primary aged pupils studying English in Busibans and more than 120,000 of pupils enrolled in private primary schools in Taiwan in the academic year of 2006. Only one class of 23 students and one teacher participated in this study. The sampling under-represented the whole related population. However, as a case study, the current research provided 'an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single entity' (Merriam, 1988:16).

Due to the design of the current study, with a small sample size, and a very unique setting, namely a 6-week CBLI programme in a private primary school, this study has very limited generalisability as most case studies would encounter. In illustration, as the teacher pointed out in the pre-course interview, she taught the same programme with the same curriculum in two private primary schools very similar in terms of location, resources available and pupils' background. Nevertheless the process as well as the outcome of the programme turned out very differently due to the culture and atmosphere which underlie the two schools. The teacher further asserted that even in the same school, same grade, same programme, same time, and

two classes next to each other, in which one was the class studied, and both were taught by her, they turned out completely different. The studied class liked creative writing and art whereas the other class disliked creative writing; however they liked the art class by the end of the programme. Such examples show the findings in this study have very limited generalisability for a greater population.

It was not possible to infer what long-term effect CBLI might have on young learners' motivational attributes and language development as this study only covered a 6-week period of time due to the nature of the summer programme design. The long term effect cannot be determined without follow-up investigations. Masgoret et al. (2001) point out that when students demonstrate high motivation intensity during one particular programme this does not necessarily mean they will keep such high motivation in the long term perspective.

6.3 Implications for Pedagogy & Curriculum Design

This study helps to make clear how CBLI could impact on EFL young learners' language development, motivation attributes, mainly on language attitude, motivation, self-confidence and classroom anxiety in the studied context. It is involved with investigation of how learners' motivation attributes changed via the use of CBLI in a six-week summer programme. As the study has examined how CBLI impacts on EFL young learners' motivation attributes and their language development holistically, utilising multiple data sources from both the teacher and the students, it can provide descriptions of phenomena that occur naturally in a real classroom context, without the intervention of an experiment or artificially contrived treatment.

The current study paves the way for future pedagogical implications for motivational research in contexts relevant to this study. It was evident that the learners were very excited about content-subject lessons and were keen on participating in activities as well as on using the target language creatively. However, they did not extend such motivation into intensity of the target language learning as the LMQ results revealed that not all motivational attributes investigated changed after undergoing the CBLI programme. Dörnyei (2001) points out that motivational intensity is a strong indicator of how much effort a learner is willing to invest in learning the target language. This is particularly important as the amount of effort learners are willing to make has a direct impact on the result of their learning. This study has shown that the use of CBLI has an immediate influence on learners' participation and target language production in class. The next step thus will be investigating if CBLI has a positive long-term impact on learners' motivational attributes and ultimately enforces learners' motivation intensity. Additionally, it will

also be of great benefit to investigate its long term impact on learners' motivation towards school learning as a whole instead of just focusing on language learning.

Apart from examining changes of the learners' motivational attributes, this study also provides a sophisticated picture of how teacher and EFL young learners' classroom interaction patterns varied due to differences in the foci of the class, content knowledge/meaning in content-subject classes and form/accuracy in language sessions. This has been through the use of the Communicative Orientation Language Teaching Observation Scheme (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995) and conversational analysis (cf. 4.2 The Teacher's and the Learners' Classroom Verbal Interaction: Qualitative Analysis, p.167). Thus the value of this study, which provides a emic picture together with the analytical feature of how content and form focused lessons shaped the teacher and learners' target language use in the authentic EFL content-based teaching scenario, can be of great benefit in research and teaching applications.

Content-subject teaching can be integrated into language teaching in an EFL setting particularly for primary school pupils. The content element seemed to encourage the learners' discussion on the topics introduced and consequently generated creative target language use. As many studies suggest this is due to the fact that content-embedded lessons are cognitively challenging and learners have real purposes for communication (Brinton et al., 1989; Chamot, 1983, 1985; Crandall, 1993; O'Malley, 1987). Further, the use of CBLI increased the interest of half of the learners in other school subject learning (see Table 5.10 Changes of Motivation Attributes: Pre vs. Post-Course, p.207).

6.4 Final Remarks and Further Research

This study presented the reality of CBLI use in a private primary school classroom and further investigated its impact on the participants' motivational attributes and language development in an EFL context. Such an inquiry provided parents and curriculum designers with a better understanding of the increasing use of CBLI in the private language sector. The use of classroom video tapes and observation notes together presented both emic and etic views of classroom interaction, and language assessing instruments helped towards a better understanding of how CBLI helped learners' language development. Most importantly, analysis of the learners' motivational attributes changes revealed how CBLI could impact on learners' motivation intensity in an EFL context.

Many researchers conclude that use of CBLI promotes language learners' motivation intensity (Brinton et al., 1989; Masgoret et al., 2001; Swain, 1985; please see Chapter 2 for a review). It has been evident in this study that CBLI boosted not only the learners' motivation, but also helped them achieve higher levels of language proficiency. Further, it also improved the interest of half of the subjects in learning other school subjects. Such findings are encouraging for the use of CBLI with EFL young learners. It is beneficial not only for language learners' academic skills (Chamot, 1987; Mohan, 1986), language learning strategies (Chamot, 1986; O'Malley; 1987), motivation intensity (Brinton et al., 1989.; Masgoret et al., 2001; and this study), but further it has a positive impact on language learners' interests in mainstream subject-learning. It is hoped that this research will prove useful to future work on this subject.

The current study provides tentative support for the claim that CBLI helps with less-proficient EFL young learners' motivation to learn the target language, although it also increases their classroom anxiety. Nonetheless, it is important to bear in mind the methodological limitations in this study as some of its instruments might have yielded unreliable data. In particular the use of RWSA with EFL young learners with limited proficiency in English. Moreover, the scale and context of the current study also limited the extent to which the findings could be generalised. It restricted the size of quantitative and the depth of the qualitative data.

Some findings of this exploratory study have raised two further questions. First, the learners with less language development showed more improvement in their language learning motivation which was also positively correlated to their classroom anxiety (see 5.2.2 Correlations amongst Post-course Motivation Attributes, 5.3.2 Learners with High vs. Low scores on post-course classroom anxiety, and 5.4 Summary of the Learners' changes on Motivation Attributes for review). In some way, it could mean the subjects' anxiety level in this study was still within a healthy range which did not have an impact on their learning motivation. If this was the case, a question for possible further research is generated: how much classroom anxiety is good anxiety? How much anxiety will start to jeopardise language learners' motivation? Second, this study concluded that the use of CBLI had a positive impact on learners' willingness to participate in classroom activities. However, this study only observed a six-week CBLI programme. It would be valuable to find out if CBLI can be as motivating in a long term run. A follow-up study of whether the subjects could maintain their high motivation in learning English will provide more adequate evidence to prove/disprove whether the use of CBLI has any impact on the learners' language development and learning motivations.

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Appendix 1 Summer Smart Table of Content

Contents

1 Who Am I? General knowledge

2 Where Do I Live? Address, telephone number

3 Aa Letter formation and sound

4 All Aboard! Number formation

6 Always Adding Addition

7 Bb Letter formation and sound

8 Belle at the Beach Initial consonants

9 Beautiful Babies Matching

10 Cc Letter formation and sound

11 Crazy Compounds Compound words

12 Castle Calendar Reading a calendar

14 Dd Letter formation and sound

15 Dandy Drawing Drawing

16 Do the Days Days of the week

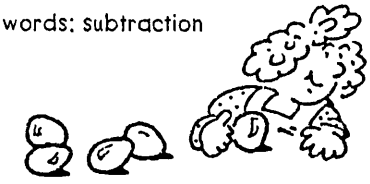
17 Ee Letter formation and sound

18 Eggs, Eggs Number, color, and rhyming words: subtraction

20 Easy Experiment Science

22 Ff Letter formation and sound

23 Flower Facts Addition, subtraction, counting



24 **Fun Friends** Writing, drawing

25 **Gg** Letter formation and sound

26 **Goldilocks and Friends** Nursery rhymes, fairy tales

27 **Goofy Gus** Patterns

28 **Hh** Letter formation and sound

29 **Happy Holidays** Counting

30 **Hannah's House** Map reading

31 **Ii** Letter formation and sound

32 **Inch by Inch** Measuring

33 **Jj** Letter formation and sound

34 **Jam and Jug** Rhyming words, phonograms

35 **Jiggle Jaggle** Following directions, colors

36 **Kk** Letter formation and sound

37 **Kings and Keys** Science

38 **Ll** Letter formation and sound

39 **Lincoln's Life** History, listening comprehension

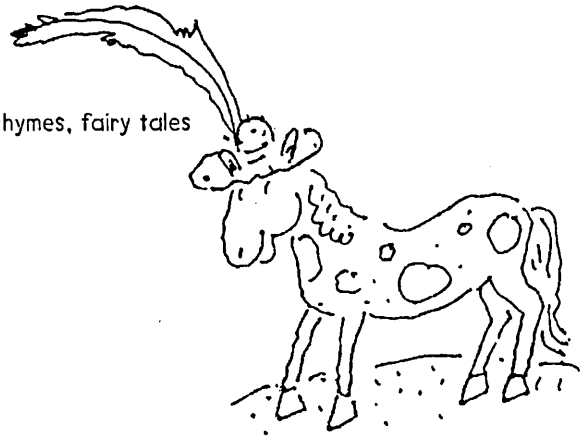
41 **Line Lesson** Ordinal numbers

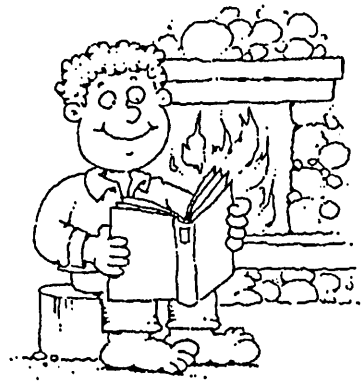
42 **Mm** Letter formation and sound

43 **Mish Mash** General knowledge

44 **Nn** Letter formation and sound

45 **Ned's Newsstand** Money





47 **Nice Numbers** Counting, writing numbers, adding

49 **Oo** Letter formation and sound

50 **Only Opposites** Opposites, high-frequency words

51 **Out! Out!** Classification

52 **Pp** Letter formation and sound

53 **Pretty Patterns** Patterns

54 **Peter, Peter, Pumpkin Eater** Consonants, rhyming words

55 **Qq** Letter formation and sound

56 **Quote Questions** Listening comprehension

57 **Rr** Letter formation and sound

58 **Rescue Robby** Following directions

59 **Ready to Rhyme** Rhyming words, phonograms, consonants

61 **Ss** Letter formation and sound

62 **Sam's Senses** The five senses

63 **Special Seasons** Seasons

64 **Tt** Letter formation and sound

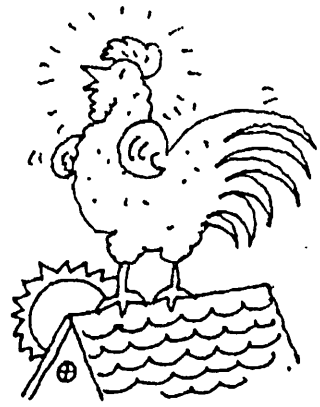
65 **Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear** Consonants, rhythm, rhyme

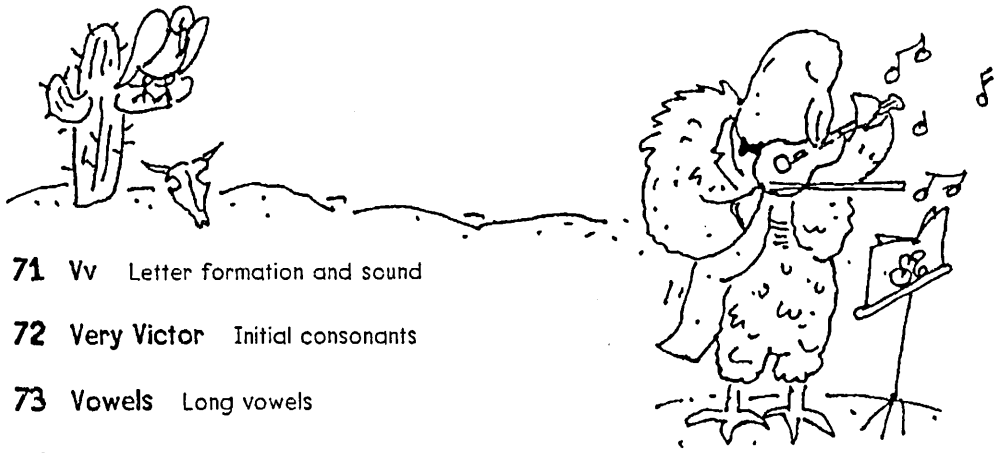
66 **Telling Time** Time to the hour and half hour

67 **Uu** Letter formation and sound

68 **Under the Umbrella** Short vowels

69 **United Under the Flag** History, listening comprehension





71 Vv Letter formation and sound

72 Very Victor Initial consonants

73 Vowels Long vowels

74 Ww Letter formation and sound

75 What Do You See? Observing, writing

76 Wonderful World Geography

77 Xx Letter formation and sound

78 X It! Safety rules

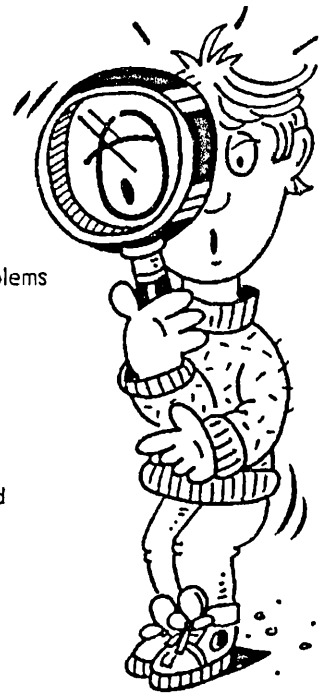
79 Yy Letter formation and sound

80 Your Yardstick Measuring

81 Zz Letter formation and sound

82 Zany Zoo Addition, subtraction, word problems

83 Zzzz... Writing



BOOK SECTION

85 *No More Water in the Tub!* by Tedd Arnold

87 *Hattie and the Fox* by Mem Fox

88 *The Napping House* by Audrey Wood

89 Answer Key

Appendix 2 Summer Programme Scope & Sequence

Week	Subject	Content & Text	Learning Objectives on skills / strategies /L2 Structure Pupils will be able to/ will
1	Reading 1.1	Theme1: All Together Now Story 1: Mac the Cat Story 2: A Day at School	use prior knowledge; use picture clues;
	Summer Smarts	1. Personal information (p.1~2) 2. Letter formation and sound: Aa~Dd 3. Math: Numbers 1~10 (p4~6) 4. Math: Days of the week, Sunday~Saturday (p13, 16)	understand concepts of print; introduce one's self; review numbers 1~10; review days of the week
	Phonics/Spelling	Story 1: go, on, the , cat, sat Story 2: and, here, jump, not, too, we, can, fan, nap, Pat, tap	recognize, read, spell high-frequency words, recognize and produce rhyming words
	Writing	(p1~6) 1. Writing Sentences 2. Telling Sentences 3. Asking Sentences	understand what constitutes a sentence; distinguish statements from questions
Week	**Subject**	**Content & Text**	**Learning Objectives on skills / strategies /L2 Structure Pupils will be able to/ will**
2	Reading 1.1	Theme1: All Together Now Story 3: Pigs in a Rig Theme2: Surprise! Story 1: A Party for Bob	predict; identify the main idea; use picture clues; distinguish between fantasy/realism

	Summer Smarts	1. Letter formation and sound: Ee~Hh 2. Math (p.19, 24) 3. Science: Easy Experiment (p20~21)	understand concepts of print; develop observation skills, record/document what they observe, use prior knowledge
	Phonics/Spelling	Theme 1: a, to, it, find, who, Pig, have, big Story 3: ran, one, hit, sit Theme2: five, two, got, four, upon, hot, in, Story 1: what, lot, once, box, wag, three, did	recognize, read, spell high-frequency words, recognize and produce rhyming words
	Writing	(p 7~12) 1. Exciting Sentences 2. More Sentences	write with complete sentences; express excitement; review questions and statements
Week	**Subject**	**Content & Text**	**Learning Objectives on skills / strategies /L2 Structure** **Pupils will be able to/ will**
3	Reading 1.1	Theme2: Surprise! Story 2: The Bunnies and the Fox Story 3: A Surprise for Zig Bug	listen for gist and details; predict; relate to personal experience
	Summer Smarts	1. Letter formation and sound: Ii~Mm 2. Math (measuring: inch) 3. Reading: Lincoln's Life (p39~40) 4. Math: Line Lesson (p41)	understand the concept of measuring; measure with inches; understand the concept of order
	Phonics/Spelling	Story 2: do, for, I, is, me, my, said, you, get, help, kid, next, yes, yet Story 3: are, away, does, he, live, pull, they, where,	recognize, read, spell high-frequency words, recognize and produce rhyming words

		bug, jug, quit, up, zag, zig	
	Writing	(p13~18) 1. Capital Letters 2. Capital Letters Review 3. Plurals	review name and match all uppercase and lowercase letter forms; begin sentences with capitals; to understand plurals 's'
Week	**Subject**	**Content & Text**	**Learning Objectives on skills / strategies /L2 Structure** **Pupils will be able to/ will**
4	Reading 1.2	Theme3: Let's Look Around! Story 1: Seasons Story 2: Miss Jill's Ice Cream Shop	relate to personal experience; use prior knowledge
	Summer Smarts	1. Letter formation and sound: Nn~Qq 2. Math (Money & Addition) 3. Mish Mash (sorting, p.43) 4. Only opposites (p.50)	add with single digits; classify and sort; understand instructions and the concepts of opposite: out – in, stop – go, little- big, off – on, yes -no
	Phonics/Spelling	Story 1: animals, birds, cold, fall, flowers, full, look, of, see, buds, is, lots, pick, pups, will Story 2: all, called, eat, eating, every, first, never, paper, shall, why, fixed, Jack's, licked, yelled	recognize, read, spell high-frequency words, recognize and produce rhyming words
	Writing	(p19~24) 1. More Plurals 2. Periods 3. End Punctuation	use end punctuation: period, question mark, exclamation; understand the use of plurals 'es'

Week	Subject	Content & Text	Learning Objectives on skills / strategies /L2 Structure Pupils will be able to/ will
5	Reading 1.2	Theme3: Let's Look Around! Story 3: At the Aquarium Theme 4: Family and Friends Story 1: Go Away, Otto!	relate to personal experience, identify the main idea; talk about what one likes or dislikes,
	Summer Smarts	1. Letter formation and sound: Rr~Uu 2. Ready to Rhyme (p59, 60) 3. Science: Sam's Senses (p. 62) 4. Math Telling Time (p. 66) 5. Under the Umbrella (vowels, p. 68)	understand use of senses; observe with five senses; detect short vowel sounds
	Phonics/Spelling	Theme 3: also, blue, brown, colors, funny, Story 3: green, like, many, some, grab, grass, it's, let's, trip Theme 4: Children, come, family, father, loves, Story 1: mother, people, picture, your, black, block, Fluff, plan	recognize, read, spell high-frequency words
	Writing	(p25~30) 1. Commas 2. Commas in Letters 3. Apostrophes in Contractions	use punctuation: commas, to distinguish commas and apostrophes
Week	**Subject**	**Content & Text**	**Learning Objectives on skills / strategies /L2 Structure Pupils will be able to/ will**
6	Reading1.2	Theme 4: Family and Friends Story 2: Two Best Friends Story 3: Dog School	relate to personal experience
	Summer Smarts	1. Letter formation and sound: Vv~Zz	observer with senses, document observations; measure with

		2. Vowels (p.73) 3. Science: What do you see? (observation skills, p.75) 4. Math: Measuring (p. 80, 82) 5. Writing a letter (p. 83)	non-standard units/objects
	Phonics/Spelling	Story 2: friends, girl, know, play, read, she, sing, today, write, best, knelt, rest, sign, snack Story 3: car, down, hear, hold, hurt, learn, their, walk, would, just, must, scrub	recognize, read, spell high-frequency words; decode/ detect sounds
	Writing	(p31~36) 1. Nouns, Verbs, and Adjectives 2. Using the Right Word 1 3. Using the Right Word 2	write complete sentences; to write sensible sentences by using the correct verbs and adjectives

Appendix 3 Reading and Writing Self-Assessment

Self-report Proficiency Schedule

Name: _____Class: _____ School: _____Years of study English:___.

Circle the number in the column (1-6) to show how well you can do these tasks in English

Reading	Tasks	1 not so good - 6 Excellent					
1.	I can read numbers 1-100	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	I can read the date	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	I can read and say the names of the letters	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	I can find words arranged in alphabetical order	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	I know what sound each letter makes	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	I can read simple sentences	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	I can read information on a simple form	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	I can read a short story with my teacher's help	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	I can read the story of 'A very Lucky Day'	1	2	3	4	5	6
Writing							
10.	I can write capital letters	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	I can write the lower case letters	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	I can write my name	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	I can write a complete sentence	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	I can write about myself	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	I can write about things I like or dislike	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	I can write about my family and my friends	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	I can write a story with pictures	1	2	3	4	5	6

自我評量表

姓名: _____班級:_____學校:_____英語學習年資:___年__月

請幫你自己的英語能力打個分數: 在 1-6 間圈出最能表達你各項英語技能程度的分數

閱讀 Reading	英語技能	1 完全不行 - 6 很厲害					
1.	我可以讀懂數字 1-100 I can read numbers 1-100	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	我可以認得我的 英文名字 I can read my English name	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	我可以讀懂字母 I can read letters	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	我可以按字母順序排列字 I can find words arranged in alphabetical order	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	我知道每個字母的發音 I know what sound each letter makes	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	我可以讀懂簡單的句子 I can read simple sentences	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	我可以讀懂簡單的字條/表格 I can read information on a simple form	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	有老師幫我時,我可以讀懂短篇故事 I can read a short story with my teacher's help	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	我可以讀懂 'A very Lucky Day' I can read the story of 'A very Lucky Day'	1	2	3	4	5	6
寫作 Writing							
10.	我會寫我的名字 I can write my name	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	我會寫字母的大寫 I can write capital letters	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	我會寫字母的小寫 I can write the lower case letters	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	我會寫完整的句子 I can write a complete sentence	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	我會寫關於我自己的作文 I can write about myself	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	我會寫關於我喜歡跟不喜歡的事物的作文 I can write about things I like and dislike	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	我會寫關於我的家人跟朋友的作文 I can write about my family and friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	我會看圖寫出一篇小故事 I can write a story with pictures	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix 4 Learning Motivation Questionnaire

Questionnaire on English Language Learning

Dear Participants,

You will be asked some questions regarding to your view on learning English. Following are a number of statements with which some people agree and others disagree. There are no right or wrong answers since many people have different opinions. I would like you to indicate your opinion about each statement by colouring the score you would give for them, smelly () = 1 strongly disagree/never, Smiley () = 5 strongly agree/always.

For example:

Statement	 5 strongly agree  **1** strongly disagree				
1. I think orange juice is very tasty.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I think spinach is yummy.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I think watching TV is boring	1	2	3	4	5
4. I think knitting is very dull.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I think dogs are very smart animals.	1	2	3	4	5

Questionnaire Starts here

Statement	 5 strongly agree **1** strongly disagree 				
1. I plan to learn as much English as possible.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Studying a foreign language is an enjoyable experience.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I like coming to English class because, on top of English language skills, I also learn other things.	1	2	3	4	5
4. My parents feel that I should continue studying English all through school.	1	2	3	4	5
5. If I were visiting a foreign country I would like to be able to speak the language of the people.	1	2	3	4	5
6. My parents encourage me to practise my English as much as possible.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I enjoy social studies in school.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I like coming to English class because it is easy to learn.	1	2	3	4	5
10. My parents have stressed the importance English will have for me when I leave school.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I wish I could speak another language perfectly.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Learning English is really great.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I come to English class because my parents told me to.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I like coming to English class because what we learn in the class is interesting.	1	2	3	4	5
16. My parents try to help me with my English.	1	2	3	4	5
Statement	 5 strongly agree **1** strongly disagree 				
17. I come to English class because I like our English Teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I come to English class because learning English is important.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I think that learning English is dull.	1	2	3	4	5
20. My parents show considerable interest in anything to do with my English courses.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I hate English.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I would study a foreign language in school even if it were not required.	1	2	3	4	5

23. My parents think I should devote more time to my English studies.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I enjoy art class in school.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I like coming to English class because it is related to the subject I study in school.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I love learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I like coming to English class because the lessons are fun.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I like coming to English class because the things we do are fun.	1	2	3	4	5
30. English is an important part of the school programme.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I enjoy math class in school.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Learning English is a waste of time.	1	2	3	4	5
33. I enjoy science class in school.	1	2	3	4	5
Statement	 5 strongly Agree  **1** strongly disagree				
34. I would really like to learn a lot of foreign languages.	1	2	3	4	5
35. I like coming to English class because the classmates are fun to play with.	1	2	3	4	5
36. It embarrasses me to volunteer answer in our English class.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I really enjoy learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
38. I feel uncomfortable in class when I hear words or sentences I don't know.	1	2	3	4	5
39. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in our English class.	1	2	3	4	5
40. I often wish I could read story books in another language.	1	2	3	4	5
41. I would rather spend my time on subjects other than English.	1	2	3	4	5
42. When I leave school, I shall give up the study of English entirely because I am not interested in it.	1	2	3	4	5
43. I feel uncomfortable in class because I don't understand what teacher is saying.	1	2	3	4	5

英 語 學 習 問 卷 調 查

參與者您好!

下列爲一系列關於你自己對學校學科及英文學習的意見及看法．所有的意見都有人贊成也有人反對．而且很多人的看法都完全不同,這些意見並沒有對錯的分別．請將就你個人的看法來圈選並表達你的意見．

 1 表示非常不同意/從來不覺得,  5 表示非常贊同/ 常常如此．

例如:

意見與看法	 5 非常贊成  1 非常不同意				
3. 我覺得橘子汁很好喝	1	2	3	4	5
4. 我覺得菠菜很好吃	1	2	3	4	5
5. 我覺得看電視很無聊	1	2	3	4	5
6. 我覺得織毛衣很無聊	1	2	3	4	5
7. 我覺得狗是最聰明的動物	1	2	3	4	5

意見與看法	 5 非常贊成  1 非常不同意				
1. 我計劃儘可能多的學英文・	1	2	3	4	5
2. 學習外國語言是很愉快的經驗・	1	2	3	4	5
3. 我來上英文課是因爲除了英文以外,我還學到其他東西・	1	2	3	4	5
4. 我爸媽覺得我在學期間最好持續學習英文・	1	2	3	4	5
5. 如果我出國去玩的話我會希望我可以說當地的語言跟當地人說話・	1	2	3	4	5
6. 我爸媽鼓勵我盡量練習英文・	1	2	3	4	5
7. 我喜歡學校的社會科學課・	1	2	3	4	5
8. 我怕我說英文的時候其他同學會笑我・	1	2	3	4	5
9. 我來上英文課是因爲英文很簡單易學・	1	2	3	4	5
10. 我爸媽常強調學校畢業後英文對我的重要性・	1	2	3	4	5
11. 我希望我會講其他語言講得很好・	1	2	3	4	5
12. 我總是覺得別人的英文說得比我好・	1	2	3	4	5
13. 學英文很贊・	1	2	3	4	5
14. 我來上英文課是因爲我爸媽要我來的・	1	2	3	4	5
15. 我來上英文課是因爲課程裡學到的東西很有趣・	1	2	3	4	5
16. 我爸媽會試著幫我覆習英文・	1	2	3	4	5
17. 我來上英文課是因爲我喜歡我們的英文老師・	1	2	3	4	5
18. 我來上英文課是因爲學英文很重要・	1	2	3	4	5
19. 我覺得學英文很無聊・	1	2	3	4	5
20. 我爸媽對我英文課程上的事物都感到相當有興趣	1	2	3	4	5
21. 我恨死英文了・	1	2	3	4	5
22. 就算學校不要求,我也會想學其他語言・	1	2	3	4	5
23. 我爸媽覺得我應該多花些時間在英文學習上・	1	2	3	4	5
24. 我喜歡學校的美術課・	1	2	3	4	5

意見與看法	 5 非常贊成  1 非常不同意				
25. 我在英課堂上說話時會緊張而且會頭腦不清・	1	2	3	4	5
26. 我來上英文課是因爲課堂上的內容跟學校科目有相關・	1	2	3	4	5
27. 我實在是太愛學英文了・	1	2	3	4	5
28. 我來上英文課是因爲課程很有趣・	1	2	3	4	5
29. 我來上英文課是因爲課堂上的活動很有趣・	1	2	3	4	5
30. 英文是學校很重要的一門課・	1	2	3	4	5
31. 我喜歡學校的數學課・	1	2	3	4	5
32. 學英文是浪費時間・	1	2	3	4	5
33. 我喜歡學校的自然科學課・	1	2	3	4	5
34. 我想要學很多外國語言・	1	2	3	4	5
35. 我來上英文課是因爲我喜歡跟我的同學一起玩・	1	2	3	4	5
36. 在英文課時主動舉手回答問題會讓我覺得不好意思・	1	2	3	4	5
37. 我很喜歡學英文・	1	2	3	4	5
38. 當我在課堂上聽到不懂的字或句子時我會很不自在・	1	2	3	4	5
39. 在英文課回答問題時,我總是不太確定對不對・	1	2	3	4	5
40. 我希望我讀得懂其他語言的故事書・	1	2	3	4	5
41. 我寧可把時間花在學其他科目上也不想花在學英文上・	1	2	3	4	5
42. 學校畢業後我就要放棄學英文了,因爲我對它沒興趣・	1	2	3	4	5
43. 當我聽不懂老師說的話時我會很不自在・	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 5 Pre-course Teacher Participant Interview Schedule

1. Would you please briefly describe your teaching experiences / employment history in Taiwan?
2. How are your students coping with the new programme so far?
3. What's the students' favourite class? What do they dislike the most so far? Do you know why?
4. What do you think are the main difficulties your new students have encountered so far?
5. Do you notice any learners who are more interested in language learning than the others? How about any children who appear to be not interested in learning?
6. Could you briefly compare the 2 lessons I recorded in your class this week? How did the lessons go? Students' responses in each lesson? What are your own opinions on the two lessons?

Appendix 6 Post-course Teacher Participant Interview Schedule

1. What have you enjoyed the most in teaching this programme? What do you dislike the most in the past 6 weeks?
2. How are your students coping with the new programme?
3. What's the students' favourite class? What do they dislike the most? Do you know why?
4. What do you think are the main difficulties your students encounter?
5. Do you notice any learners who are more interested in language learning than the others? How about any children who appear to be not interested in learning?
6. Could you briefly compare the 2 lessons I recorded in your class this week? How did the lessons go? Students' responses in each lesson? What are your own opinions on the two lessons?

Appendix 7 Adapted Observation Scheme - A

Observation Scheme A

Student number: Date of Visit: Number of Visit:

Subject: Duration: Observer:

Time	Activities & Episodes	Participant Organisation					Content								Student Modality			Note
		Class			Individual		Management		Language				Other Topics					
		T ↓ S/C	S/C ↓ T	Choral	Same Task	Different Task	Procedure	Discipline	Form	Function	Discourse	Socioling	Narrow	Broad	Listening	Speaking	Other	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19

Note: Adapted from Spada & Frohlich 1995, COLT

Appendix 8 Adapted Observation Scheme-B

Observation Scheme B

Student number: Date of Visit: Number of Visit:

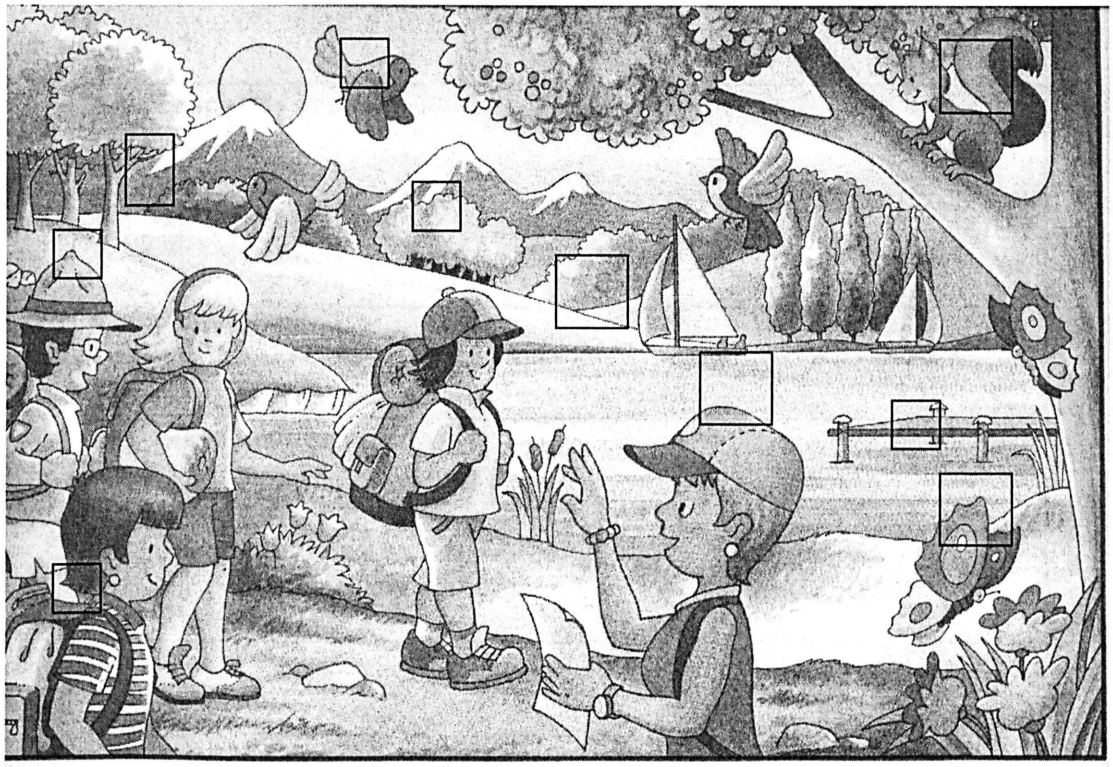
Subject: Duration: Observer:

	Teacher Verbal Interaction																		Student Verbal Interaction																	
	Language Use		Sustained Speech		Information Gap				Reaction to form /meaning		Incorporation of student utterances Note								Language Use		Sustained Speech		Information Gap				Reaction to form /meaning		Incorporation of student utterances Note						
					Give Infor		Req Infor																Give Infor		Req Infor											
	L1	L2	Minimal	Sustained	Predic.	UnPred.	Pseudo	Genuine	Form	Meaning	Correction	Repetition	Paraphase	Comment	Expansion	Clarifying request			L1	L2	Minimal	Sustained	Predic.	UnPred.	Pseudo	Genuine	Form	Meaning	Correction	Repetition	Paraphase	Comment	Expansion	Clarifying request		
Episode 1																																				
Episode 2																																				
Episode 3																																				

[i] Note: Adapted from Spada & Frohlich 1995, COLT

Appendix 9 Close Gap Activity - Park Field Trip

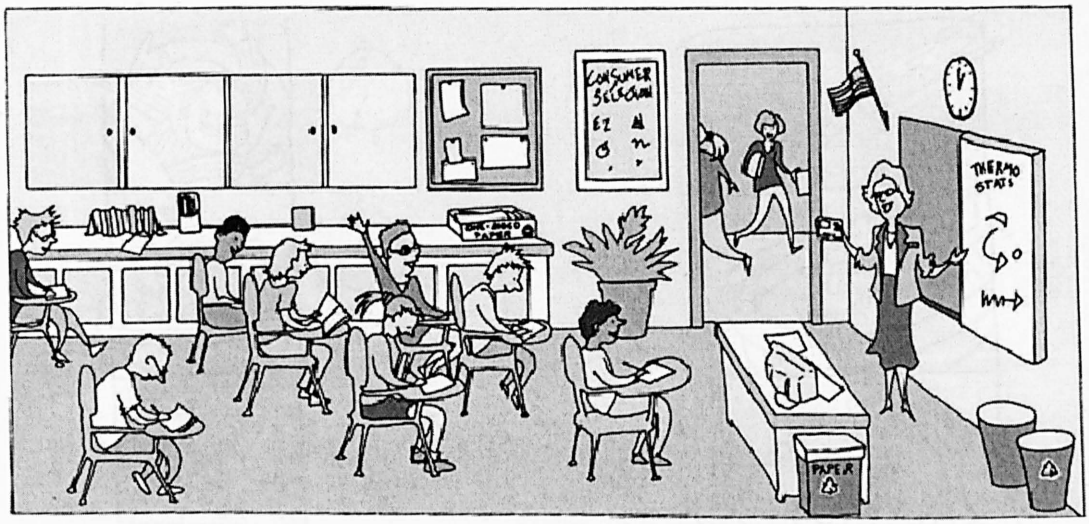
Picture Differences
There are 10 differences in the pictures. Ask the teachers questions and try to find out what they are.



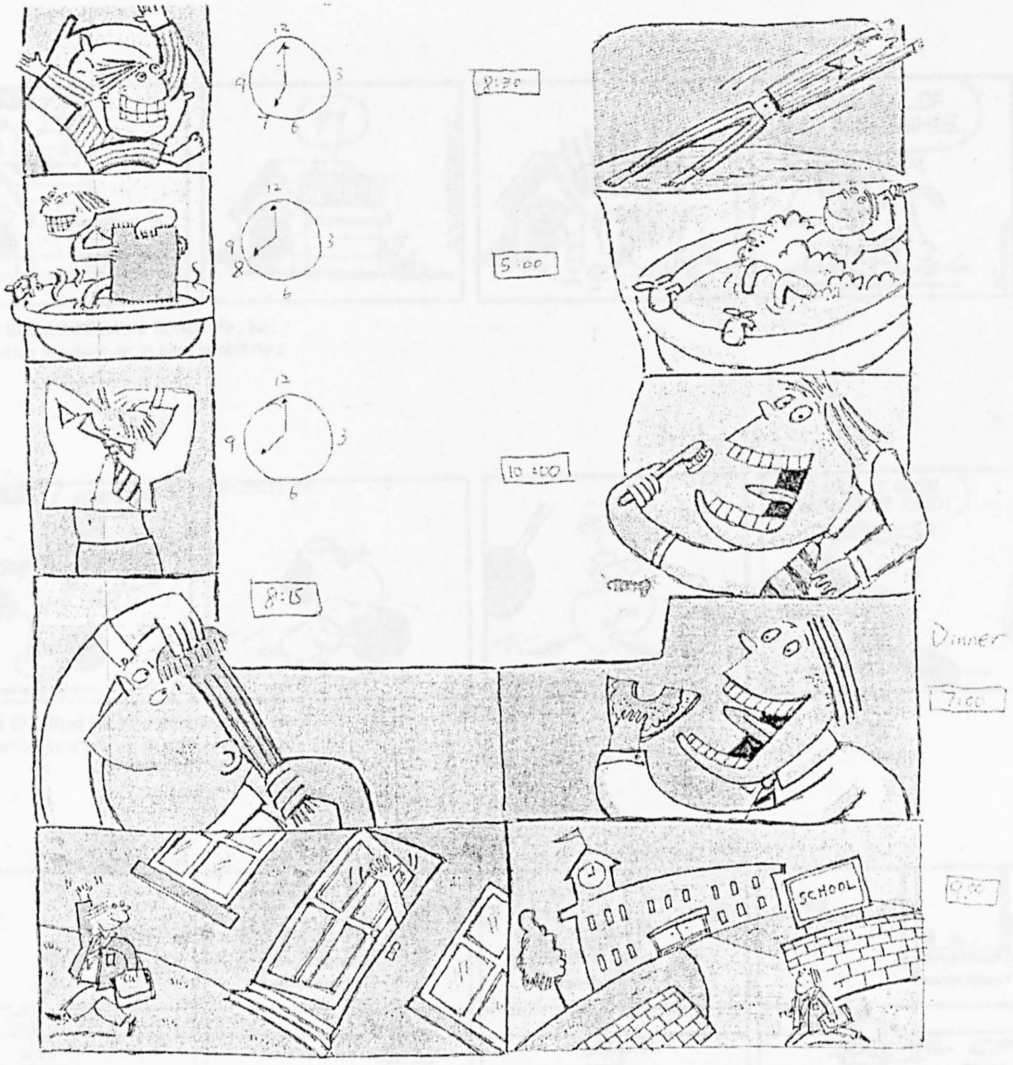
Appendix 10 Student-Teacher Interview
Ask the teacher questions and find out the following things about your teacher.

1. Teacher's Name
2. Teacher's telephone number
3. Teacher's age
4. Animals she likes
5. Fruit she likes
6. Likes dogs or not
7. Likes swimming or not
8. Dinner time
9. Favourite colour
10. Has any Brothers or sisters

Appendix 11 Picture Recognition & Description Tasks
Please tell me what you see in the pictures



What does Johnny do at …?



1. **What does Johnny do at 7 o'clock in the morning?**

2. **What does Johnny do at 8 o'clock?**

3. **What does Johnny do at 9 o'clock?**

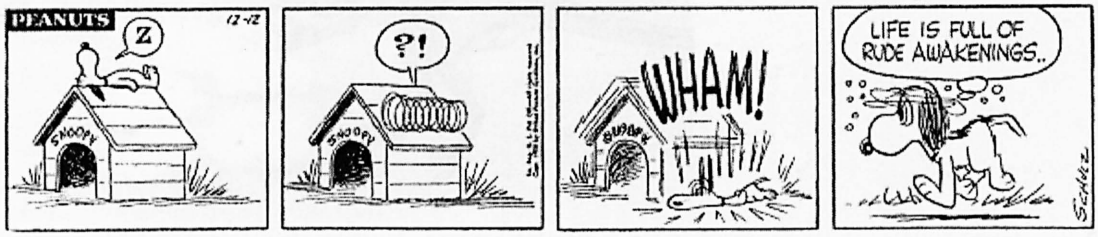
4. **What does Johnny do at 10 o'clock?**

5. **What does Johnny do at 7 o'clock?**

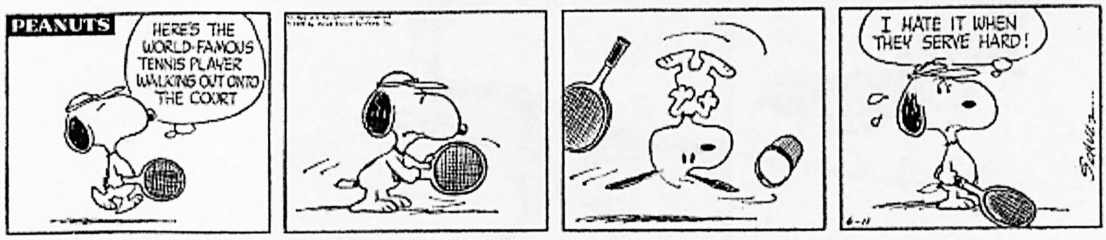
Appendix 12 Story Telling - Sequenced Pictures

Choose a set of pictures and make a story!

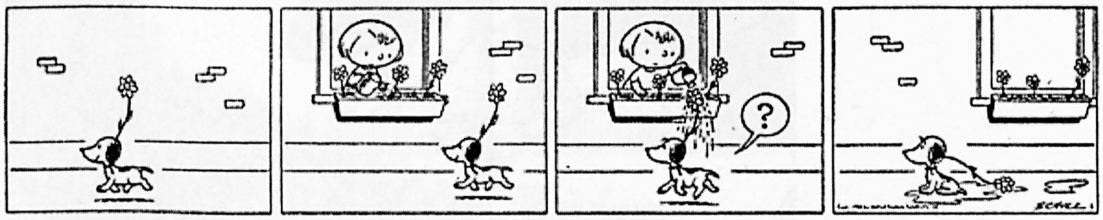
A



B



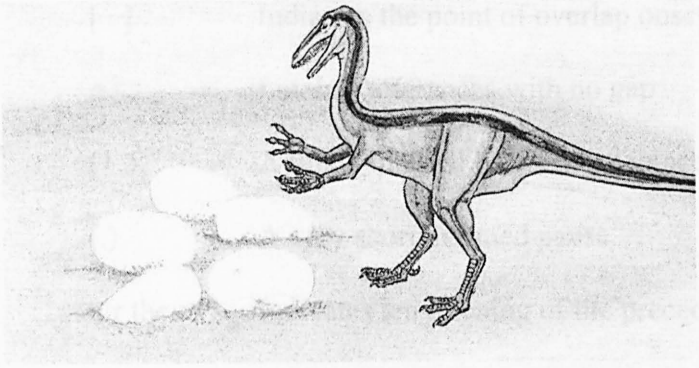
C



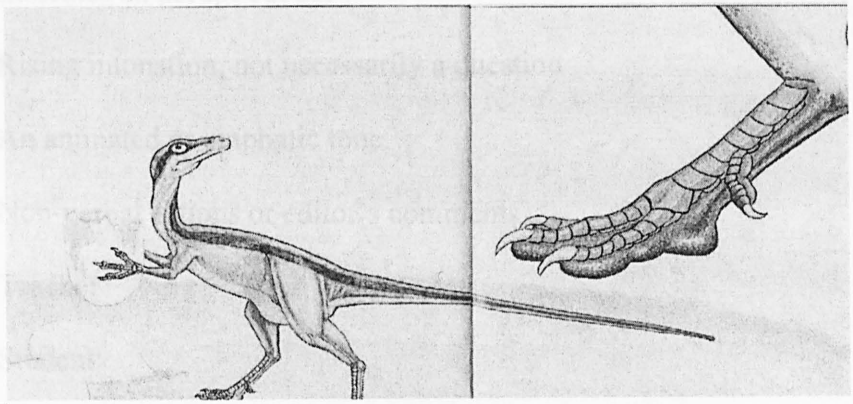
D

E

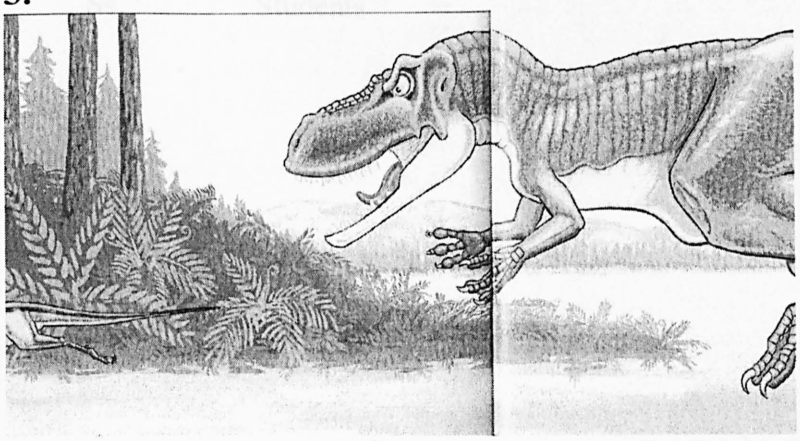
1.



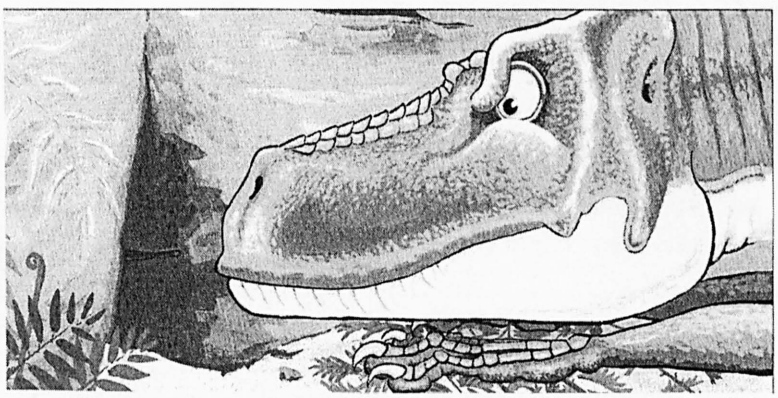
2.



3.



4.



Transcription Conventions

[ ]	Indicates the point of overlap onset and termination
=	Latched utterances with no gap
(1.5)	A timed interval between utterances
(.)	A very short untimed pause
e:r the:::	Indicates lengthening of the preceding sound
-	Indicates an abrupt cut-off
?	Rising intonation, not necessarily a question
!	An animated or emphatic tone
{ }	Non-verbal actions or editor's comments
T:	Teacher
S1: ST:	Student
Ss	Students

Appendix 13 Extract of Pre-course Language Input Session - Spelling Exercise

Spelling Exercise			
20.	T		No? (1.5) you know trip?
21.	S2		no
22.	S3		Lollypop!
23.	T		Like a lollypop? (1.0) or like er (0.5) a holiday
24.	S4		Oh tha::t
25.	T		Anyone can spell trip?
26.	S5		Yeah! T (0.3) T (0.3) T (0.3)
27.	T		Hand up! (0.5) T:: what?
28.	S6		T-R-I-P
29.	T		Good job, Bob! (0.5) ri::ght now, this one is trip (0.5). T-R-I-P { writing 'TRIP' on the blackboard} (2.0) we are going to wri::te (1.0) how many times?
30.	S7		5!
31.	T		5? (.05) good job. 5 times (0.5) T-R-I-P (0.3) 5 times trip=trip=trip.
32.	S8		trip=trip=trip {imitating the teacher}
33.	T		5 times (1.0) trip trip trip trip (1.0){walking around the classroom checking learners' work} (2.0) good (3.0) good (5.0) oh:: such nice writing you guys (0.5) excellent! (2.0) Number 2 i::s crab (0.5) like from the ocean.
34.	S8		Teacher Stephanie help me open (1.5) {trying to open his pencil case} help me open
35.	S9		I help you (1.0) here. {Trying to open the pencil box for S8}
36.	T		T: I'm sorry one second {writing on the blackboard} (3.0) What do you need in there? (0.5) an eraser? {helping with S8's pencil box} (5.0) I can't do it. (1.0) can you borrow one from Emily? Emily, can he borrow an eraser? Oh you {talking to S9} did it (0.5) you did it (0.5) I'll put it here (1.0) so we don't drop it. {Talking to S8 while putting the pencil box away.
37.	T		Oh you guys (.05) come down here (1.0) I tell you I made a mistake//
38.	S10		I already write 4 time
39.	T		No:: this is the wrong word
40.	S11		No::::.
41.	T		This is the wrong word (1.5) {laughing}it's the wrong word (0.5) your words (1.0) er I'm sorry. (0.5) it's easier than that. I feel so bad. you actual word is 'in' (0.5) in to the class (0.5) 'IN' (1.0) don't eraser it = don't eraser it. Keep going. 'IN' (0.5) David?
42.	S12		I-N
43.	T		Good (1.0) I N.
44.	S13		Number 2 is in?
45.	T		Yep! (1.0) O::h Teacher Stephanie made a mistake (1.0) how are you doing? Wow so fast! { The teacher is walking around in class and checking the learners' work.}
46.	S14		I finish!
47.	S15		Finish!
48.	Ss		Finish!
49.	T		Good! Ok. (0.5) Number 2 = 3.
50.	Ss		Two::::

51.	S16		One:::
52.	T		Oh::: Teacher Stephanie is cream today (1.0) it (0.5) it's a dog (0.5) 'it', David?
53.	S17		[I-T.]
54.	Ss		[I-T]
55.	T		Good job! I – T (1.0) it {writing it down on the blackboard}it=it=it.
56.	Ss		finish
57.	S18		I finish.
58.	T		You guys have such nice writing (1.0) {Teacher is walking around the class} so good (0.5) give me some more space, Jessica (0.5) put your finger between the words.
After finishing spelling work, the class moved on to phonics practice.			
59.	T	>	al::right.by yourself. (1) we are going to practice some (0.5) phonics. But I want to see you what you kn::ow. Since (0.5) if some people are still catching up on this. Tha::t's o::kay. (0.5) if you finish writing all: your spelling words in your practice book. (0.5) using your page (0.5) sixty::three. {clip 3: 12:30}
60.	S1	>	=I finish.
61.	T		You wanna say that. I'm there. No I'm there. Selina, Selina. I'm there. (0.5) say I'm there.
62.	S1		I'm (1.0)
63.	T		I'm there.
64.	S1	>	=I'm there.
65.	T		= good. (1.0) finish this, then you don't have to do any more work. I'm there is when [you
66.	S2	>	[I'm there?
67.	S3	>	Where?
68.	T		=There's page number = on the board (0.5) 6 3? (1.0) when you finish your writing (0.5) you can turn your page to sixty-three.=ah ha Peg's started to write it. Are you done?
69.	S4		{Shaking her head}
70.	T		Page sixty-three. Look at the picture = circle the beginning sound
71.	S4		Where is it?
72.	T		You don't know where page 63 is? Yeason?
73.	S4		{turning the pages}
74.	T		Good job. Ok. Do this by your own (0.5) . Excellent. (0.5) page sixty three? (0.5) page sixty three.(1.0) and you can do page sixty four. Ok. (1.0) when you finish circling the beginning sound? Then you can colour those pictures when waiting for everybody to catch up to us. = Dennis you are so fast today. Good for you!
75.	S5	>	Sixty four?
76.	T		Yeah=can you do sixty four? (1) good. {monitoring around the class}. Tiger? you've done your work?
77.	S6		Yeah
78.	T		Alright. Where is your practice book? Ok now I want you to do page sixty three and sixty four. {14:50}

After finishing the workbook practice, the class moved on to some reading activity.

79.	T	>	We are going to start something new this week.=I was talking to another teacher. She's doing something new with her class=and we are going to do it in this class. (1.0) the mo::st important job in a story (0.5) if somebody is making up a story what's the most important job? (1.0) Patty?
80.	S1		That is illustrator
81.	T		That's the second most important job = but I'm impressed you remember that word illustrator (0.5). second most important. = Now number 1 person, David?
82.	S2		Ern, (1.0), ern,
83.	T		The ar:: (1.0) the ar? (1.5) author. The author is the most important job to do with the story.= why? (0.5) What does the author do? Why is he so important, Nana?
84.	S4		He did the writing..
85.	T		He does the writing. (1.0) Ok? So from now on when we read this title (0.5) we're also going to read the author. (0.5) ok? The author go.=we're going to read it like this. Pigs in a wig (0.3) written by Helen Lester, ok? Let's try to do this part.
86.	S5	>	have 2 picture...have 2 picture {pointing at 2 photographs in the book}
87.	T		That's because of that's 2 different jobs.=1 is the author? The other is the illustrator. What does the illustrator do? Patty remembered the word?= who knows the job?
88.	S6		writing
89.	T		No:: that's the author. {S7 raises her hand} Peggy?
90.	S7	>	Who is in this picture?
91.	T		He's a painter (1.0) Who paints the pictures. So everybody repeat after me. My turn. Pigs in a Rig.
92.	Ss		Pigs in a Rig.
93.	T		Written by (0.1) Helen Lester. = Your turn.
94.	Ss		Written by Helen Lester
95.	T		Illustrated by
96.	Ss		Illustrated by
97.	T		Karen Smith
98.	Ss		Karen Smith
99.	T	>	Good. Let's look at the pictures. (0.5) is this a real story? Could this happen in real life? Or [fin...fan] fancy story.
100.	S8		[yeah]
101.	S9		Fancy
102.	T		It's a little (1.0) fantasy? Yeah? Everybody thinks so? Ok:: let's see if you are right. If it's a fantasy happens in a dream. = Let's turn the page. Ooh! Three pigs are (0.3) where?
103.	S10		=that is not fantasy.
104.	T		=It's not fantasy? (0.5) three pigs. Where are they?
105.	S11		Tub. Tub.
106.	T		In a tub. Right.= let's see if this is fantasy. Can pig wear glasses? Who is rocking the chair? Tiger if you can't sit properly, you can't

			have the chair, ok? Tiger.
107.	S12		ok
108.	T		Thank you. Ok.= can pigs wear glasses?
109.	S13		No.
110.	T		No:: ok. Pigs have bows in their hair?
111.	Ss		No.
112.	T		No:: so is this story real? Or is it like a dream?
113.	S14		Dream.
114.	S15		Dream.
115.	T		It's like a dream. So it's fantasy. Ok next one. Where are the pigs going? (0.5) they are getting in a::
116.	S16		Car
117.	T		Not a car. It's a?
118.	S17		[ri::]
119.	S18		[Rig]
120.	T		Rig. A rig is a::? (2.0) What is it?
121.	S19		Truck.
122.	T		It's a truck! A rig is a truck. Who is this you think? What's his job?
123.	S20		=farmer
124.	T		David?
125.	S21		Farmer.
126.	T		He's a farmer. Right let's turn the page. (1.5) ah oh! One pig is in the::
127.	Robin		[Mud]
128.	S23		[Mud]
129.	T		Hand up! What is that? Robin? Hand up. Robin? Robin, what is that?
130.	Robin		Mud.
131.	T		Mu::d. oh no one pig in the mud::. Let's turn the page. {bell rings} ah oh::. This pig fou::nd (0.3) what? Tony?
132.	Tony		jag
133.	T		Ja::g. Oh that's enough. Let's stop here and come back to it.

Appendix 14 Extract of Pre-course subject-learning session -Science class Episode of setting up the experiment

5.	T	Excellent! Thank you my two helpers. We have one cup with white paper around it. You guys go sit down. (1.0) ok. I need two people to help me to do the same thing with black paper = but you need to be ready for the spelling words.[put your hands down] hands down. Hands down.
6.	Ss	[I can=I can]
7.	T	Alright. Are you ready? Who can spell:: (0.5) milk! (1.0) Ken.
8.	Ken	M-I-L-K
9.	T	Good job=come on up. Ok. Hands down. Are you ready? Who can spell catch?
10.	S1	[I can!]
11.	S2	[I can!]
12.	S3	I can!
13.	T	Woo:: so fast! Jeff
14.	Ss	I can! I can!
15.	Jeff	C-A-T-C-H
16.	T	Wow! First try! Good job. Come on up here. Good for you! Alright
17.	S4	Oh, easy!
18.		{two selected students helping out to put black paper around the glass while the class watch on}
19.	T	Ok(0.5) oh yes, yes (0.5)k. Done! Excellent! Go sit down. Now we have to do 2 more things to the cups. One has white paper, one has black paper...what do we have to put in the cups?
20.	Ss	Water!
21.	T	Water! (0.5) ok:: (1.0) I guess the spelling is needed. Thanks. {a student passing the spelling list to the teacher.} (1.0) woo:: this is your bonus spelling from yesterday (0.5) who kno::w (0.5) {Ss putting their hands up}hands down, hands down=who knows:: how to spell 'trip'?
22.	S5	I know!
23.	T	Wow! {pointing at Betty}
24.	Betty	T-R-I-P.
25.	T	good girl. can you come and fill the glass with white paper? (5.0) excellent!
26.	S6	Teacher, can drink?
27.	T	It's science!
28.	S7	It's good to drink. [Why need to do the science?]
29.	T	Al::right. [ookeedookee (0.5) now] who can spell:: hands down, hands down. Oh::who is talking? Are you ready?
30.	Ss	Yeah!
31.	T	Who can spell 'big'?
32.	Ss	I can!... I kno::w! {Ss putting their hands up}
33.	T	Woo::ok put your hands down=I can't see you. I'm going to stand in the corner and watch the whole class. (1.0) are you ready? Hands down=ready? 'big'! (1.0)Chloe
34.	Chloe	B-I-G.

35.	T	Good girl! come and help to fill the glass..
36.	Ss	don't see::don't see::
37.	T	Yeah(1.0) alright(0.5)pretty good(0.3) I'm gonna pour more (1.0) ok, now, water is in all glasses (1.0) now we want to see, can anybody guess(0.5)we want to put these in the sun(0.5) I'm gonna put them in the sun(0.5)guess what we are trying to find out?..(0.5)what's why? what are we trying to find out? we are gonna put it there… why? why do you think the sun is going to do to our water?
38.	Emily	the sun will go drink the water…and no more water.
39.	T	Ok(0.5) maybe the sun is going to drink the water. There will be no more water. why the black and white paper? (0.5) what do you think that matters?
40.	S8	Broken.
41.	S9	bird come
42.	T	broken? [Can you]
43.	S9	[A bird come]
44.	T	A bird? No no no. I ask you about the sun (1.0) Emily's right. it has to do with the sun. (0.5)Ken?
45.	Ken	It give the sun (1.0) maybe will keep the sunshine.
46.	T	=Great! the water will keep the sunshine
47.	Ken	=the black paper will take more in the white
48.	T	will take more in the white? Oh::but how do we know it's true? If black takes more than the white. Then what will be true with the water?
49.	S10	Gone!
50.	S11	The water will be hot.
51.	T	ah ha (0.5)the water will be hotter. If the black paper takes more sun. Then the water in the black cup will be warm, right? now:: these both are the same temperature. They feel the same. = You guys wanna feel it?
52.	Ss	Yes!
53.		yes? Ok. You need to line up.(Ss lining up in front of the class)… right in front of this desk. (1.0) Yeason., you can put both of your fingers in the cups. Is it the same temperature?
54.	Yeason	yes
55.	T	same? Good… alright..go and sit down..
56.	Ss	Teacher! Tiger cut in {arguing}
{one by one, Ss try feeling the water Meanwhile, the students who have finished are chatting in English (16:30-42) then switch to Chinese.		
57.	T	Are they both cool?
58.	Ss	Yeah!
59.	T	Why are they the same you guys? Right now = why is it the same? Ken?
60.	Ken	because the water is in the same bottle
61.	T	Yeah. The water came from the same bottle. Good job! Ok! Is it (0.5) is this classroom sunny enough for our experiment?
62.	S12	Yes!

63.	S13	No!
64.	T	Is it?
65.	S14	No!
66.	S15	yeah
67.	T	we are going to take our 2 glasses (0.5)to the classroom across the hall (0.3) there (0.5) it's sunny over there, ok? So I'm gonna take it over now... maybe someone can help me..when our science class is almost over..we'll go and get it and see if one is warmer, ok? And this pause we're going to. Er:: (0.5) a question from a story, where (0.5) in the story from yesterday (0.3) 'Pigs in a Rig' (0.5) who remembers what's another word for rig? {Ss putting their hands up} (0.5)Robin?
68.	Robin	Truck.
69.	T	ok, Robin, would you come help me?
70.	Robin	Ok.
71.	T	Ok. Everybody take out (1.0) I want you to open your (0.3) practice book (5.0) 'lucky ducks' (2.0) You can do page (1.0) 74, seven:: four::. You have to put the words from the word box (1.0) into the sentences (0.5) I'll be right back. {taking the glasses to the classroom across from the hallway.}

Appendix 15 Post-course Langage Input Session - Phonics Exercice

The class began with spelling work Then the learners moved on to phonics (detecting for /e/ sound in words their hear) exercise with their workbook.		
1.	T	Num::ber 12 i::s (0.5) //
2.	S1	// this is ?* {pointing at question number12}
3.	T	That's /e/ /e/ /e/.
4.	S2	Yeah.
5.	S3	What is this? What is this?
6.	T	Num::ber 13 is (0.5) tent. /e/ /e/ /e/. /e/ tent.
7.	S4	Ten?
8.	T	/t/ /en/ /e/ /e/ tent.
9.	Ss	Yes.
10.	T	Number 14 = what's that?
11.	Ss	Hen. Hen!
12.	T	He::n. /e/ /e/ /e/ he::n.
13.	S4	Yes!
14.	T	Yes. Number 15 is ca::b. /a/ /a/ /a/
15.	Ss	No.
16.	T	And last one, [16 is a dress./e/ /e/(1.0) drass?]
17.	S4	[teacher! number 15 what. Teacher? Number 15]
18.	Ss	[yes, yes]
19.	Ss	[no, (1.0) no,
20.	T	Drass?
21.	Ss	Dress.
22.	T	Yea::h.
23.	T	What? {talking to S4}
24.	S4	{pointing at a question in his workbook}
25.	T	Ca::b /a/ /a/

Appendix 16 Post-course Subject-learning Session - Maths class Episodes of Vocabulary Teaching & Topic Introduction

Before the activity started, the teacher tried to have students put down the title of this class on their notebook.		
1.	T	You don't have notebook? Teacher Sharon, do you have (0.5) his notebook? Or do you have paper he can write on? (10.0) ok, there you go. Ok does anybody know what measuring is?
2.	S1	No.
3.	T	No?
4.	S2	I know!
5.	T	What's measuring?
6.	S2	Mmm (1.0) mmm
7.	T	Measuring can tell you ::(0.5) how::
8.	S3	Measure {holding up a ruler}
9.	T	What do you use to measure? What's that?
10.	S4	A:: ruler!
11.	T	Yep! Yes, a ruler! (0.5) A ruler can tell you:: (0.5) A ruler can tell you what?
12.	S5	Measure
13.	T	Measure what? (1.0) measure what?
14.	S6	Measure
15.	T	=Alright, Yeason come here.
16.	SY	Where?
17.	T	Come here, Yeason = come here, Yeason {pointing at a chair} (1.5) Measuring can tell us how:: {using Yeason as a figure model}
18.	S7	Short!
19.	S8	Small!
20.	T	Different word to small.
21.	S7	Short!
22.	T	No!
23.	S7	Tall!
24.	T	Tall! Measuring can tell you how tall! Measuring can tell you how::
25.	Ss	=Fat!
26.	T	=How fat you are! (0.5) Measuring can tell you how:: {lifting Yeason}
27.	S9	=Tall!
28.	T	What's this? {lifting Yeason}
29.	Ss	Er. Errr.heavy. errr?
30.	T	Alright. Thank you, Yeason. = You can sit down. Measuring can tell you (1.0) {writing on the blackboard} how:: long, right?
31.	S10	Bla bla bla
32.	T	Measuring can tell you how long::. Measuring can tell you:: [how::] tall.
33.	S11	[how tall]
34.	S12	How short.
35.	S13	Want to write?
36.	T	You have to write. (1.0) And measuring can tell you:: how:: what was the last one?
37.	S14	How fat.

38.	T	How:: (0.5) what's another word for fat?
39.	S15	[Big!]
40.	S16	[How] big!
41.	T	What's the //
42.	S17	//How heavy.*
43.	T	That's right. Good job! How heavy::
44.	S18	How baby.
45.	T	(10) {writing on the blackboard meanwhile some students were teasing each other being fat in English.} there you go. That's what measuring can tell you.
The learners noting down what the teacher put on the blackboard. Meanwhile, the teacher walked around the class and checked students' notes.		
46.	S19	Ha ha ha. It's fat. {referring to the drawing on the blackboard}
47.	S20	He said..she said it's me {pointing at the drawing on the blackboard}
48.	T	No, it's me.
49.	S21	He said you draw Tiger there.
50.	T	No, it's me.
51.	S20	I'm thin! I'm not fa::t!
52.	S19	(inauditable)
53.	S20	I'm thin!
54.	S19	(inaudible)
55.	S20	I'm thin!!
56.	T	You are thin. {start to make another drawing on the blackboard}
57.	S20	Yeah! I'm very thin. I only 23.
58.	S23	Twenty three::?
59.	S24	One hundred?
60.	S25	23 is //
61.	S26	//I 25. I am 25.*
62.	S27	I'm 25!
63.	S28	I'm 40!
64.	T	There, Tiger, that's you. {talking to S20}
65.	S29	Teacher, I'm 24.
66.	S30	I'm 23.
67.	Ss	Teacher I'm 24. I'm 23 {students called out to draw teacher's attention.}
68.	S28	Teacher Stephanie, I'm 40.
69.	T	Alright, good. O:::k! has everybody drawn my pictures?
70.	Ss	No. no!
71.	T	Don't forget to put in the question marks
After all learners finished taking notes, the teacher introduced the topic (Measuring with paper clips) and demonstrated measuring with paper clips. Then the class moved on to hands-on activity, measuring one peer's height in groups of 4 and measuring their hands and feet with paper clips independently. (Group work episode is omitted in extract.)		
72.	T	I want you to measure two ways. (2) Measure (3.0) measure from here to here {drawing a hand on the blackboard}
73.	S31	I'm six!
74.	S32	I'm 8!
75.	T	Measure:: there there… and measure from here (1.0) here.

76.	S33	7.
77.	Ss	{the learners are performing the task meanwhile there is laughing and talking noise in the background}
78.	S34	5!
79.	S35	8!
8 Exchanges omitted.		
80.	T	Who has measured from here to here? {pointing at the drawing on the blackboard} (2.0) Bob, how many?
81.	Bob	5
82.	T	Anyone more than 5?
83.	S36	Me!
84.	T	How many Nana?
85.	S36	8!
86.	T	Wow! Big hands.
6 Exchanges omitted.		
87.	S37	9!
88.	T	Wow! Let's me see how many mine is? {the teacher is measuring her own hand} Guess how many mine is?
5 Exchanges omitted		
89.	T	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8!. Who has 8?
1.	Ss	Nana
2.	T	Nana, your hands are as big as mine?

Appendix 17 Summary of Pre-session Teacher's Interview

1. **Would you please briefly describe your teaching experiences / employment history in Taiwan?**

   Sure. I've been working in Taiwan for 3 years. This is my 4th year. My first teaching job was Y High School. I taught in X private bilingual primary School, before I came here. This is my second year in this school (School Z here after). School X and School Z are the same to me in terms of administration, curriculum, and students' background. However, they are completely different in terms of atmosphere. I mean, here in School Z it feels more like a real school and with a much stronger team spirit. This is particular obvious when celebrating holidays, such as Christmas and Halloween. Both schools have this kind of activities as part of curriculum, but they run them differently. For example, students design costumes for Halloween, but in School Z they don't just design costumes. They have all the children working together, ever class pick their own theme. Each child makes his/her costume including the teachers. They compete as a class not as individuals. And on Halloween, everybody, parents, the kids, teachers, staff, puts on their costume and have a big party in the school. Those kinds of things make me feel it's more like a real school.

2. **How are your students coping with the new programme so far?**

   They are doing pretty well. I mean considering how young they actually are. They just finished in kindergarten. Some of them look not as proficient, but they are just lack of confidence. And some are just lack of maturity.

3. **What's the students' favourite class? What do they dislike the most so far? Do you know why?**

Art! And they love singing (music class). Physical things, and they love playing. I did an art project with them. Coz', this week, our Readying topic is about bug. So I gave them a ladybug body parts on a piece of paper. They had to cut and glue thing. They just loved it. I think they loved it coz' it's more like a game and art thing.

They hate writing the most. That will change. Coz' my grade one, last year, they were struggling. Just writing 2 or 3 sentences was asking a lot. And it is. It is asking a lot for most of them. But it will change, my grade one last year, they started to begging for writing class after Chinese New Year (6 months after joining the programme). It was great, but it was weird. I'm hoping it'll change. Now, some of them like it, only one or two of them. But most of them, it's hard for them just to copy down some words. I think it's their motor skills are not that developed yet. Also, it takes a long time for them to put and process information in here (their brains).

4. **What do you think are the main difficulties your new students encounter so far?**

They hate writing the most. And also, they can't sit in the class for 60 minutes. They get bored easily. So I have to do many different things in one class. It's really asking a lot for 6 year olds to sit in a class and stay focused for 60 minutes. Even for grade six, they classes are like 50-minute long during regular term time. They (programme directors in the school) only do 60-minute classes during summer; probably because it's easier to schedule.

Also, learning being in school with many other students is a big deal; such as learning being with others, cooperating, and learning acceptable behaviours in the classroom. Those are huge things for them. And also, this is their first time in school, so all these make things harder. It's hard for them, and we need to work with them for all year long just for those things. Especially on cooperating, they are still very young and still in that very self-centred stage of their development. They still don't know how to appreciate being with others.

5. **Do you notice any learners are more interested in language learning than the others? How about any children appear to be not interested in learning?**

Yeah. I've noticed some of them are more focused in the class and some of them like to play around. K is the sharpest one in this class. And R is more focused than K is. K is shocking. I mean his vocabulary shocks me. It's really maturing. He doesn't just repeat information. He actually understands it. He transfers ideas. Like today one of our vocabulary words was den. We talked about how rabbits live in den. And we talked about where is a den, and how you make a den. And what they do in a den. And then what other animals live in a den. And then we drew a picture of what a den is. You know animal homes in underground. Then we drew bunnies living in a den. And K drew a bear lives in a cave. And he's absolutely right. He can take information and transfer it. It shows abstract learning. He can take the ides and transfer it. It's really impressive. That's more like grade 3 learning.

J is really smart. But she's immature at the same time. Like, K stands out because his maturity equals to his intelligence. He is really grown up for his age, very self-disciplined, and very focused, you know. Everything he does during his

free time in class is learning, whereas J is more like playful, doing something with her stickers (toys). Being playful is more age-appropriate. J is younger psychologically. K is really mature and interested in learning.

Student T likes to play around. He is still at that very self-centred stage. I'm sure it's just a phase thing during their development. D is very quiet. He is way behind T, but because he barely opens his mouth, so I don't know exactly how his proficiency is like. He's always daydreaming or something. But it's a maturity thing again. He's just lack of focus.

6. **Could you briefly compare the 2 lessons I recorded in your class this week? How did the lessons go? Students' responses in each lesson? What are your own opinions on the two lessons?**

Yeah, they were more excited about the science class. They were doing things, helping me setting up the experiment, touching the water with their hands that sort of stuff. I think it was a nice break from the book. They got to do something different, and they produced some really cool projects.

Appendix 18 Summary of Post-course Teacher's Interview

1. **What have you enjoyed the most in teaching this programme? What do you dislike the most in the past 6 weeks?**

   I enjoyed the writing class the most. Although it was chaos, it was very amazing to see what the kids came up with. T and N wrote novels and novels when I only asked for 5 sentences. For some children 5 sentences is asking a lot, but T and N were good. Writing class also shows you their competency. I wouldn't know N would stand out that much but her writing was good. And K actually surprised me, because he was the sharpest one in class, but his writing was so young. K is really sharp in class, and N doesn't speak up at all. But N produces buckets of words.

   I really didn't like how 'Summer Smart' sessions. The organization of the textbook didn't make sense to me. In one page, they ask you to trace the letters, the next they ask you to write an essay. There was no continuity. I can't understand how they classified their materials. So it was hard for me to make the transition flow.

2. **How are your students coping with the new programme?**

   All subjects are equally challenging, but in different ways. Language sessions are challenging in a way that they have to sit at their desk and do paper and pencil work. In subject-learning sessions, content-learning is challenging because they have to cooperate with others and to develop critical thinking.

3. **What's the students' favourite class? What do they dislike the most? Do you know why?**

They liked the writing class, and all their math and science classes. I think the Practice Book (An exercise book for grammar, phonics, and reading skills) is the most tedious for them. It's like page after page of grammar excises. There is so much work to cover so the parents would be satisfied. And they are so young. However, it's the subject's fault or the children's fault. It's the design of the programme. They (programme directors) tried to accelerate the programme which should be much longer than 6 weeks. It's too much to ask from them. I think they like writing and art is because it's their own time. They are not doing 'exercise'. They get to think, make their own thing and to discover things.

4. **What do you think are the main difficulties your students encounter?**

It was the amount of work they had to cover in such short period of time. This summer has been packed. There were too many things (subjects and amount of work from each subject) they had to cover.

5. **Do you notice any learners are more interested in language learning than the others? How about any children appear to be not interested in learning?**

I can notice their development in English. However they are more or less the same in terms of maturity. I don't think 6 weeks is long enough for them to mature. I can't notice the differences yet.

Y has not changed a lot. He's actually quite capable when he is on his own. He's relying on J so much, because J just offers mothering. J is so worried about everything in the class. But it's interesting thought her behaviours in the class is

very different from out side of the class. Probably because Teacher S and I are the third most important people in the world to her. It's the same for D and N. I think the students are not as enthusiastic in learning are just lack of maturity.

6. **Could you briefly compare the 2 lessons I recorded in your class this week? How did the lessons go? Students' responses in each lesson? What are your own opinions on the two lessons?**

   They were mostly excited about the paper clips (Math class). It was chaotic, but they enjoyed it and got to do what they were supposed to do (measuring with non-standardised unit: paper clips). Phonics class was based on their routine. They knew the drill.

Appendix 19 Correlations amongst Post-course Proficiency levels, Amount of Improvement, and Motivational Attribute Changes

Changes of Attributes, N=23		Subject Preference	Positive-worded Statements	Negative-worded statements	Classroom Anxiety	Motivation	Parent Support	Self Confidence	Proficiency	Improvement
Language Attitudes	Pearson Correlation	.113	.006	-.236	-.014	.349	.225	.061	**.436***	**.457***
	Sig.	.608	.978	.279	.949	.103	.302	.781	.043	.033
Subject Preference	Pearson Correlation	1	.154	-.087	.257	.363	.352	.262	-.211	-.325
	Sig.		.483	.693	.236	.089	.099	.228	.345	.141
Positive-worded Statements	Pearson Correlation		1	.017	.319	**.453***	-.097	.062	-.367	-.209
	Sig.			.938	.138	.030	.660	.779	.092	.352
Negative-worded Statements	Pearson Correlation			1	.008	-.313	.028	.061	-.404	.012
	Sig.				.969	.146	.900	.783	.062	.958
Classroom Anxiety	Pearson Correlation				1	.353	-.029	.049	-.162	-.156
	Sig.					.099	.894	.824	.472	.488
Motivation	Pearson Correlation					1	.040	.032	-.234	-.029
	Sig.						.857	.884	.294	.898
Parent Support	Pearson Correlation						1	.144	.252	.022
	Sig.							.513	.257	.922
Self Confidence	Pearson Correlation							1	.084	-.062
	Sig.								.711	.786
Proficiency	Pearson Correlation								1	**.614****
	Sig.									.002

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).